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Factors of Believability of Television Newscasters.

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~~FACTORS OF BELIEVABILITY~~
~~OF TELEVISION NEWSCASTERS~~

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

Speech

by

Mary I. Blue

B.A. Iowa State University, 1975

M. A., University of Nebraska, 1980

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ABSTRACT

The believability of male versus female television newscasters was examined. The research was conducted in two parts. First, a nation-wide survey of television news directors was conducted to determine their opinions concerning "What makes a newscaster believable?" The news directors were randomly selected from Broadcasting Yearbook's "Directory of Television Stations in the United States." The responses of the survey were converted to semantic differential scales.

Two newscasts were constructed and videotaped which were identical except one was delivered by a male anchor person and the other by a female anchor person. A written description was used to manipulate the perceived credibility of the newscaster.

Subjects were randomly assigned to view the newscast under one of six conditions: low-credible male, medium-credible male, high-credible male, low-credible female, medium-credible female, and high credible female. Subjects then rated the newscasters on 52 semantic differential scales

and responded to three demographic questions and two close-ended questions. Data was collected from 544 students enrolled in a multi-section speech fundamentals course at Louisiana State University: 300 males and 244 females. The data was analyzed using multiple discriminant analysis.

The discriminant analysis suggested the presence of five dimensions of believability of television newscasters. The dimensions were labeled "Professionalism," "Style," "Trustworthiness," "Sophistication," and "Character." While the dimensions were the same for male and female newscasters, the order of importance of the dimensions differed. Overall, the high-credible male newscaster was slightly more believable than the high-credible female newscaster. However the male newscaster was rated higher on "Professionalism," "Trustworthiness" and "Sophistication" and the female newscaster was rated higher on "Style" and "Character."

In addition it was found that news directors' perceptions of believable newscasters do not coincide with viewer perceptions. It was concluded that more research needs to be done to develop an instrument to measure the believability of male and female newscasters.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

National and local television news is perhaps the most pervasive source of information in the United States today.

Surveys conducted annually by Roper Organization, Inc., have shown that since 1963 television has been the source of most news for the American people. In addition, the most recent surveys have revealed that television enjoys a 2.5 to 1 advantage over newspapers as the 'most believable' news medium.¹

An integral part of television news is the man or woman who delivers the news on the air. The importance of the news broadcaster prompted Baggailey and Duck to state:

TV news programs often seem centered on the projection of an image of the presenter above all else. To use the advertising analogy, the viewer is offered not simply the news product but marked symbols of the presenters' worthiness.²

One important criterion for judging "presenters' worthiness" is perceived credibility.

¹Warren K. Agee, Phillip H. Ault and Edwin Emery, Introduction to Mass Communication, 5th ed. (New York: Harper & Row, 1976), p. 289.

²John Baggailey and Steve Duck Dynamics of Television (Westmead, England: Saxon House, 1976), p. 120.

Clearly when the function of a TV broadcast is intended to be information (news/education/persuasion, etc.) cues to credibility are likely to be an extremely influential determinant of its intended effect.³

The idea that broadcaster credibility affects viewers' reactions to the news is consistent with results of credibility research in speech-communication. For example, Berlo, Lemert and Mertz stated:

We know an individual's acceptance of information and ideas is based in part on 'who said it.' This variable, the source's role in communication effectiveness, has been given many names: ethos, prestige, charisma, image, or, most frequently, source credibility. Whichever label is used, research consistently has indicated that the more of 'it' the communicator is perceived to have, the more likely the receiver is to accept the transmitted information.⁴

Television newscasters can be defined as communication sources whose perceived credibility affects the acceptance of the information they present.

Berlo, Lemert and Mertz suggested that credibility is not something that a source possesses, but is a perception attached to the sources by those who receive them. Sherif, Sherif and Nebergall said "credibility and like terms do not represent attributes of communicators; they represent

³Ibid., p. 56.

⁴David K. Berlo, James B. Lemert and Robert J. Mertz, "Dimensions for Evaluating the Acceptability of Message Sources." Public Opinion Quarterly 33 (March 1970): 563.

judgments by listeners."⁵

Certainly credibility is a function of the listeners, but receivers respond to both verbal and nonverbal cues which are emitted by the source. Mehrabian and Ferris, for example, demonstrated empirically the importance of nonverbal cues on source credibility.⁶ These cues affect the perceived credibility of any message source, including television newscasters.

Perhaps the most subtle nonverbal cue which seems to affect the perceived credibility of television newscasters is sex. For example, most network anchorpersons are men-- Walter Cronkite, Dan Rather, John Chancellor, and Frank Reynolds. Women do not appear as regular evening anchorpersons. The only exception was Barbara Walters, who was replaced after approximately one year. Network women usually appear as reporters or as anchorpersons for early-morning and weekend news shows only.

Most research investigating sex differences in the mass media has focused primarily on the portrayal of sex roles in such areas as advertising and programming. However, there is a dearth of scholarly articles dealing with

⁵C. W. Sherif, M. Sherif and R. E. Nebergall, Attitude and Attitude Change (Philadelphia, Pa.: W. B. Saunders, 1965), pp. 201-202.

⁶A. Mehrabian and S. R. Ferris, "Inference of Attitudes from Nonverbal Communication in Two Channels," Journal of Consulting Psychology 31 (1967): pp. 248-52.

differentiation on the basis of sex in the area of television news.⁷ This lack, and the lack of network news anchorwomen, seems to indicate a need for research on the dimensions comprising the believability of broadcast news men and women.

Background and Importance of the Study

Since its beginning, television news has been a predominately male-dominated industry. Although women have made their appearance in television news throughout the years, their position is hardly significant today. Woman made her first journalistic endeavor on the television screen in the form of the "woman's program." Although the nature of these programs has changed over the years, the basic format remains the same. These women were basically home economics oriented. Some of the first requirements were:

1. Discussion of tangible subjects with viewer appeal for dramatic presentation--food, fashions, home planning and equipment, and all subjects that reach the home.
2. Technicians trained to present these commodities--demonstrators, script writers, artists, and lecturers.
3. A high degree of success in all other media such as newspapers, magazine publicity and radio.
4. A demand on the part of manufacturers and educators working in this field to present their product and information in visual journalism.

⁷Linda J. Busby, "Sex-Role Research on the Mass Media," Journal of Communication 25, no. 4. (Fall 1975): 116.

5. Above all, the woman covered all subjects nearest the heart of every American home and offered service that helped make the home healthier and happier.⁸

It is obvious that the journalistic ability required of these women was minimal, but it was from this point that the newswoman emerged.

Through the 1960s, the image of the newswoman was that of the glamorous lady who mainly indulged in social and domestic chit-chat, far from the centers of power. That she was a qualified journalist was secondary. Whatever women were doing, it wasn't considered journalism. Journalism was what men did. Women were limited by two conflicting myths--first, the myth of pure objectivity--an ideal that clashed with the other myth, that of female emotionalism.⁹ It was thought that a woman, subject to emotional outbursts, could not accurately and objectively report the news and then present it.

Women were also limited by their voices. The pitch of the female voice, which is usually higher because of the given physical traits of the vocal cords, is associated with the undesirable trait of timidity. It is not associated in people's minds with serious topics. Mannes quotes a broadcaster giving a reason why in the United States so

⁸Ellen Pennel, Women on TV (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Co., 1954): pp. 4-6

⁹Judith Hennessey, "Some News is Good News," Ms. (July 1974): pp. 67-68.

few women were employed as reporters by television networks: "As a whole, people don't like to hear women's voices telling them serious things."¹⁰ Qualities other than pitch alone are evidently involved here; a handbook for announcers states that although women were employed by stations during World War II, they were not retained once men were again available, because

often the higher-pitched female voices could not hold listeners' attention for any length of time, while the lower pitched voices were frequently vehicles for an overly polished, ultra-sophisticated delivery that sounded phoney.¹¹

According to the handbook, "Women's delivery. . . is lacking in the authority needed for a convincing newscast."¹²

To see a woman reporting news on television is no longer as novel as it once was.

Even though they have been highly visible for some time now, female television reporters are still a new breed in the battle for women's rights.

¹⁰Quoted by Mary Ritchie Key, "Linguistic Behavior of Male and Female," Linguistics 88 (August 15, 1972): p. 10.

¹¹Marya Mannes, "Women Are Equal, But--," in Current Thinking and Writing, ed. Joseph Bachelor, Ralph Henry, and Rachel Salisbury, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969): P. 270.

¹²Cheris Kramer, "Women's Speech: Separate But Unequal?" Quarterly Journal of Speech 60, no. 1 (February 1974): p. 20.

A few years ago, the closest they could get to television news was to tune in to Walter Cronkite. Today, they are after his job.¹³

But this has been a recent development. Only a few years ago, most news operations advertised for and hired newsmen almost exclusively. A 1960 survey found that one-fourth of the broadcasting jobs in the United States were held by women, but nearly all of these were traffic, continuity, or secretarial positions. Television news was "males only" at most stations.¹⁴

A signal for change came in 1964 with the amendment of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act to prohibit discrimination by sex as well as by race, color, creed, or national origin. Then, in the late 1960s, as the women's liberation movement accelerated, attention was called to the lack of women in broadcasting news jobs, and stations began to feel pressures to remedy the situation. By 1970, a survey found newswomen in 45% of the nation's TV newsrooms, with 94% of the news directors saying that they would hire a woman as a reporter.¹⁵

¹³ "Women in TV Have Come Far; Now Can They Hold The Big Jobs?" Omaha World Herald, 2 March 1979, p. 14

¹⁴ Vernon A. Stone, "Attitudes Toward Television Newswomen," Journal of Broadcasting 18, no. 1, (Winter 1973/74): p. 52.

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 55.

In 1972, newswomen were reported working full time in 50% of the television newsrooms and part time in an additional 7%. A more detailed 1972 survey of only those television operations represented in the Radio Television News Directors Association showed at least one full time newswoman in more than two-thirds of the RTNDA newsrooms. More than one-third had two or more women in news jobs. Newswomen were doing on-the-air reporting at 60% of the RTNDA stations, and this air work often included news-casting.¹⁶

An intervening event between the 1970 and 1972 surveys was the issuance of an order by the Federal Communications Commission in 1971 adding women to the FCC's equal employment opportunity rule, which previously had applied only to racial and ethnic minorities. The order states:

a) Equal opportunity in employment by all licensees or permittees of commercially or noncommercially operated standard FM, television or international broadcast stations to all qualified persons, and no person shall be discriminated against in employment because of race, color, religion, national origin or sex.

b) Each station shall establish, maintain, and carry out a positive continuing program of specific practices designed to assure equal opportunity in every aspect of station employment policy and practice.¹⁷

¹⁶Ibid., p. 56.

¹⁷FCC's Equal Opportunity Rule, quoted in "Helpful Hints in Media Job Hunting," Air Time 1 (October 1974): P. 3.

The attitudes of television station executives concerning what the public wants sometimes keep women from being hired as newscasters, and long-held attitudes are slow to change. In 1971 Reuven Frank, then president of NBC news, said, "I have the strong feeling that audiences are less prepared to accept news from a woman's voice than from a man's."¹⁸ Similar comments had been heard from broadcast executives since golden male voices came to dominate the airwaves in the early years of radio. Although most news executives would claim that these attitudes do not prevail in 1981, a recent interview with NBC newswoman Jessica Savitch would seem to indicate that they do.

When I first started into interviewing, I hit the old obstacles. They said, 'No, you can't do that job in news.' Why? 'Because you're a woman,' they said. What do you mean? 'Women don't look at other women,' they said. Why? 'A woman's voice doesn't have authority,' they said. 'A woman can't work late hours,' they said. 'Therefore a woman can't do the job.'¹⁹

Savitch was one of four people chosen by NBC for "special election night '80 coverage." She called it a "sweet victory," since she had been told by one network news

¹⁸Stone, "Attitudes Toward Television Newswomen," p. 51.

¹⁹"Driven: In the game plan of life, Jessica Savitch chooses marriage. . .to her career," The Times-Picayune/The States-Item, 26 January 1981, sec. 3, p. 2.

executive that "a woman anchor is like a woman doctor-- you want a second opinion."²⁰ It seems the decision makers in radio and television still tend to assume that their audiences are not likely to accept women as on-air news reporters.

A survey done in 1974 at the University of Wisconsin of "Attitudes Toward Television Newswomen" provides some evidence concerning such assumptions. Stone investigated attitudes toward television newswomen by interviewing university professors, fourth and fifth graders, small-town parents, and news directors concerning these attitudes toward and acceptance of women on television news programs. Stone cites the usual justification for few women in important news positions: the news directors' belief that the viewing audience will not accept a female newscaster as an authority figure.²¹

The study compared the attitudes of the news directors with those of the non-media respondents. It showed that 51% of non-media respondents had no preference about the sex of an evening newscaster, while news directors estimated about

²⁰Ibid.

²¹Stone, "Attitudes Toward Television Newswomen," pp. 50-51.

67% would prefer a man. One of the traditional arguments by broadcast news directors against using women as on-air reporters is that they do not seem as believable as men. Only about one-fifth of the other respondents said they would be more likely to believe a news report by a man. If sex-related believability is not a major factor for most viewers, why would many of them say they prefer a man to a woman for television reporting? The only reason 65% said they preferred a man in any aspect of newscasting was because "it's just what I've gotten used to."²²

The television news directors were asked whether they believed a woman "of comparable ability" could handle each of several key news jobs as well as a man at their stations. Practically all the news directors said they believed a woman could do as well as a man in news writing and editing (97%) and on-air field reporting (95%). A large majority (88%) thought women could edit film or tape as well as men, but only 64% rated women as equal to men as newscasters. Even then, women were seen as better used in front of rather than behind television news cameras, because only 47% said they thought women could handle newsfilm equipment as well as men.²³

²²Ibid., p. 59.

²³Ibid., p. 60.

Stone's finding cast doubt on a generalizable concept of "sex-related believability," and it has since been all but dismissed by researchers. A recent study revealed that the number of women in radio and television news has doubled since 1972, probably as a result of pressure on news directors from the FCC to hire from groups that had been discriminated against, and not because of any attitude change on the part of the news directors.²⁴ However, a single survey, which does not even report whether or not the subjects had ever been exposed to a female newscaster, is not sufficient to warrant dismissal of the concept. It would seem that although audience members did not perceive "believability" as being related to sex, there must be some initial justification for the attitudes of the news directors.

The Research Questions

This study was conducted in an effort to answer questions about the relative believability of male versus female television newscasters. It was guided by six main research questions:

1. Are female newscasters perceived to be as believable as male newscasters by television viewers?

²⁴"Women in TV Have Come Far:", p. 14.

2. Do news directors' perceptions of believable television newscasters coincide with viewer perceptions?
3. Does dimensionality of the perceived believability of television newswomen differ from dimensionality of perceived believability of television newsmen?
4. Is the construct of believability sex-bound, or can women exhibit certain qualities and be as believable as men?
5. Are believable male newscasters and believable female newscasters perceived as such because of different factors?
6. Can a measure be developed that can be used by news directors to test prospective newscasters with reasonable assurance that it will be reliable and valid in determining believability?

The Scope and Development of the Study

The Index to Journals in Communication Studies Through 1974²⁵ was consulted to determine if researchers had investigated the relationship between sex and perceived credibility of newscasters. Articles listed under the subject headings of: ethos, credibility, communication, mass communication, television, television news, television newscasters, news, sex, and women were located and read. In addition, each of the twelve journals listed in the Index were reviewed from 1974 to the present. These journals were: Quarterly Journal of Speech, Communication Monographs, The Speech

²⁵Ronald J. Matlon and Irene R. Matlon, Index to Journals in Communication Studies Through 1974 (Falls Church, Virginia: Speech Communication Association, 1975).

Teacher, Southern Speech Communication Journal, Western Speech, Central States Speech Journal, Today's Speech, ADASC Bulletin, Philosophy and Rhetoric, Journal of Communication, Journal of Broadcasting, and Journal of the American Forensic. Other communications oriented journals not listed in the Index which were reviewed were Human Communication Research, Journalism Quarterly, and the Columbia Broadcasting Review.

Additional pertinent research may have been conducted in academic fields other than communication, therefore Dissertation Abstracts International; Series B Behavioral and Social Sciences (1941-1980), Sociological Abstracts (1952-1980), and Psychological Abstracts (1927-1980) were reviewed. A review of the relevant research on perceived credibility and television newscasters is provided in Chapter II. The experimental research methodology used in this study is explained in Chapter III. Chapter IV presents the results obtained from the experiment, and Chapter V concludes with a discussion of the results and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In an attempt to answer the research questions and to justify clearly the present study, the pertinent empirical research was reviewed. This study investigated the factors that constitute believability in a television newsperson. It is concerned with the general perceptions of the newscaster, as well as perception of the "believability" of particular newscasters. The study is not an examination of source credibility per se, but "believability," a related construct. The review of literature revealed no empirical studies that specifically investigated sex and perceived believability of television newscasters. However, the research did reveal some experimental studies which investigated the perceived credibility of male versus female communication sources delivering a persuasive message. Other research specifically investigated television newscasters. Because of the number and diversity of these research findings, they are discussed in this chapter under two major headings: Part One, Perceived Credibility and Part Two, Television Newscasters. Each part concludes with a discussion of the applicability of the findings to the research questions. Those findings most relevant to this

study are discussed in more detail.

Part One: Perceived Credibility

Introduction

One of the first rhetoricians to discuss credibility was Aristotle who wrote: "The character (ethos) of the speaker is a cause of persuasion . . . we might also affirm that his character (ethos) is the most potent of all the means of persuasion."¹ Approximately 200 years later Cicero stressed the importance of ethos (credibility) when he referred to it as "a potent factor in success" of the rhetorical event.² Empirical support for the conclusion that credibility affects persuasion was not demonstrated until about 2,000 years later.

During the 1930's and 1940's researchers conducted experiments about the affects of prestige on attitude change.³ Further research on the affects of credibility and

¹L. Cooper, The Rhetoric of Aristotle (New York: Appleton, 1932), p. 8.

²Thomas W. Benson and Michael H. Prosser, Readings in Classical Rhetoric (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1972), p. 172.

³See M. Sherif, "An Experimental Study of Stereotypes," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology (Winter 1935): pp. 371-375; Irving Lorge and Carl Curtis, "Reinstatement of the Communicator in Delayed Measurement of Opinion Change," Journal of Social Psychology 7 (1936): pp. 386-402; Helen B. Lewis, "Studies in the Principles of Judgements of Attitudes: IV. The Operation of Prestige Suggestion," Journal of Social Psychology (August 1941): pp. 229-256; and S.E. Asch, "The Doctrine of Suggestion, Prestige, and Imitation in Social Psychology," Psychological Review (September 1948): pp. 250-276.

attitude change was conducted by Haiman; Paulson; Hovland, Janis and Kelly; M. Sherif; Greenberg and Miller; and Wheelless. These authors concluded that people engaged in the communication situation evaluated the source of a message.⁴ As a result their attitudes toward the message itself were affected. For example, a source with high credibility produced more attitude change toward his message than a source with low credibility. It is important to note that these early studies considered only male message sources. The subjects in the experiments were also usually male, although a discussion of the sex of the subjects was rarely included.

Researchers in the field of speech communication and other behavioral sciences isolated and tested variables associated with the communicator, the message, the channel of presentation, and characteristics of receivers which

⁴Franklyn Haiman, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Ethos in Public Speaking," Speech Monographs 15, no. 2 (September 1949): pp. 190-202; Stanley Paulson, "Experimental Study of Spoken Communications; The Effects of Prestige of the Speaker and Acknowledgement of Opposing Arguments on Audience Retention and Shift of Opinion" (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1952); C.I. Hovland, I.L. Janis, and H.H. Kelly, Communication and Persuasion (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1953); M. Sherif, "An Experimental Study of Stereotypes," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 29 (1953): pp. 371-375; Bradley S. Greenberg and Gerald R. Miller, "The Effects of Low-Credible Sources on Message Acceptance," Speech Monographs 33, no. 2 (June 1966): pp. 127-136; and Lawrence R. Wheelless, "Effects of Explicit Credibility Statements by More Credible and Less Credible Sources," Southern Speech Communication Journal 39, no. 1 (Fall 1973): pp. 33-39.

affected perceived credibility. The following contains a summary of these findings and is organized into four sections: 1) Communicator Variables, 2) Message Variables, 3) Channel Variables, and 4) Receiver Variables.

Communicator Variables

One important element in a communication situation is the source of a message. There are many aspects of human beings which create the image that is perceived and evaluated by receivers. For example, age, sex, race, perceived status, and voice have all been associated with perceived credibility. The following reports the research findings which have isolated these communicator variables and their affect on perceived credibility.

Some studies on the effects of age on the perceived credibility of a communicator demonstrated that older persons were judged by others to be more influential than younger persons.⁵ In studies of children, both Dunker⁶ and Berenda⁷ found that younger children were influenced

⁵See R.K. Merton, Mass Persuasion: The Social Psychology of a War Bond Drive (New York: Harper, 1946); and F.A. Stewart, "A Sociometric Study of Influence in Southtown," Sociometry (February 1947): pp. 11-31.

⁶K. Dunker, "Experimental Modification of Children's Food Preferences Through Social Suggestion," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology (Winter 1938): pp. 489-507

⁷Ruth W. Berenda, The Influence of the Group on the Judgements of Children (New York: Columbia University Kings Crown Press, 1950).

by older children on topics of food preference and a measurement judging task. They also found that adults were not influential in these situations.

Specific data on the effect of age and perceived credibility were found in the field of diffusion of innovations. Sen found that clients were not as likely to utilize agricultural innovations if they were introduced by a change agent who was younger than the clients.⁸ Sen stated that the reason for this was that older change agents were viewed by clients as more expert. Similar results were reported by Alers-Montalvo in Peru,⁹ and by Rogers, Ascroft and Roling in Brazil, Nigeria and India.¹⁰ Both of these studies concluded that change agents and opinion leaders who successfully persuaded clients to use agricultural and health care technology were perceived as being older than the clients.

Sex of the communicator has also been related to perceived credibility. One of the first studies which concluded that males were perceived as more credible than

⁸Lalit K. Sen, Opinion Leadership in India; A Study of Interpersonal Communication in Eight Villages (Hyderabad, India: National Institute of Community Development, 1969).

⁹Manuel Alers-Montalvo, Pucara, Un Estudio de Cambio (Lima, Peru: Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas de la O.E.A., 1969).

¹⁰Everett M. Rogers, Joseph R. Ascroft and Neils G. Roling, Diffusion of Innovations in Brazil, Nigeria, and India; Diffusion of Innovations Research Report #24 (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1970).

females during a persuasive message, was conducted by Haiman.¹¹ Whittaker and Mead collected data in Brazil, Jordan, Rhodesia, India, and Hong Kong. They found that when a political message was presented orally, males were rated as more credible than females in Brazil, India and Hong Kong. They reported no results for Rhodesia.¹² Goldberg, et al., had subjects read about dietetics, elementary education, law and city planning. One group of subjects read articles attributed to female authors. The data indicated that male authors were rated more credible than female authors.¹³

Miller and McReynolds found a significant main effect for sex, i.e., males were rated as more credible than females. They had subjects read news released about anti-ballistic missiles.¹⁴ In another study Mulac and Sherman

¹¹Franklyn Haiman, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Ethos in Public Speaking," Speech Monographs 15, no. 2 (September 1949): pp. 190-202.

¹²James O. Whittaker and Robert D. Meade, "Sex of the Communicator as a Variable in Source Credibility," Journal of Social Psychology 72 (Fall 1967): pp. 27-34.

¹³Alvan Goldberg, Lloyd Crisp, Evelyn Sieburg and Michele Tolela, "Subordinate Ethos and Leadership Attitudes," Quarterly Journal of Speech 52, no. 4 (December 1967): pp. 354-360.

¹⁴Gerald R. Miller and Michael McReynolds, "Male Chauvinism and Source Competence a Research Note," Speech Monographs 40, no. 2 (June 1973): pp. 154-155.

demonstrated that male speech students were rated as more competent and credible than female students who delivered a persuasive message.¹⁵

A study by Rossiter examining the sex of the speaker, sex of the listener, and listening comprehension compared 14 short audio tape recorded messages delivered by male and female speakers. It was concluded that neither the sex of the listener nor the sex of the listeners and sex of speakers were of much consequence in determining the listening scores of the subjects.¹⁶

In a similar investigation, Kibler, Barker, and Cegala found comparable results. Most research suggests that males comprehend more information from an oral message than do females, though a study of televised presentations of information revealed exactly the opposite results.¹⁷ Kibler, et al., found that neither males nor females comprehended more information from an oral message than the other sex did, regardless of the sex of the speaker. However, over a three

¹⁵Anthony Mulac and Robert A. Sherman, "Relationships Among Four Parameters of Speaker Evaluation: Speech Skill, Source Credibility, Subjective Speech Anxiety, and Behavioral Speech Anxiety," Speech Monographs 42, no. 4 (November 1975): pp. 302-311.

¹⁶Charles H. Rossiter, Jr., "Sex of the Speaker, Sex of the Listener, and Listener Comprehension," Journal of Communication 18, no. 1, (March 1972): p. 64.

¹⁷James G. Brandon, "An Experimental Television Study: The Relative Effectiveness of Presenting Factual Information by the Lecture, Interview, and Discussion Methods," Communication Monographs 23 (1976): pp. 272-283.

week period, a significant loss of comprehension was noted for male subjects listening to a male speaker. No significant loss of comprehension was noted for any of the other three groups, male subjects listening to a female speaker, female subjects listening to a female speaker, and females listening to a male speaker.¹⁸

Leadership studies have also examined the sex variable. Maier, finding males more effective leaders than females in unstructured situations, and both equally effective in structured ones, hypothesized that differences were a function of male self-confidence.¹⁹ Rosenfield and Fowler examined personality, sex, and leadership style and found no real differences in behavior among male and female leaders. However, between-sex comparisons of perceptions of autocratic and democratic leadership styles revealed interesting differences. Whereas democratic males were characterized as forceful, analytical, and as valuing the love of people, democratic females were characterized as open-minded and nurturing. The democratic male may appear to group members as analytical and thereby aloof, while the

¹⁸Robert J. Kibler, Larry L. Barker, and Donald J. Cegala, "Effect of Sex on Comprehension and Retention," Speech Monographs 37 (November 1970): pp. 287-292.

¹⁹Norman R.F. Maier, "Male versus Female Discussion Leaders," Personnel Psychology 23, no. 2, (1970): pp. 455-461.

democratic female may appear to be warm and affectionate.²⁰

The survey research of Richmond and McCroskey examined the trustworthiness of male versus female opinions on various topics. The findings showed that some topics, such as movies and fashion, are no longer strictly "women's topics." However, both males and females indicated an overwhelming preference for male opinions concerning politics. Additionally, the single males studied were about as likely to turn to females as to males for general opinion leadership.²¹

Other studies demonstrated that sex of the communicator did not significantly affect perceived credibility. Bostrom and Kemp studied the difference between subjects' reactions to males and females advocating different positions on a racial issue. The results indicated that masculine and feminine speakers were not rated significantly different.²² Conflicting conclusions to the Goldberg, et al., study cited earlier were found by Mischel, who replicated Goldberg's methodology by attributing the same articles to male and female authors. The results indicated that

²⁰Lawrence D. Rosenfeld and Gene D. Fowler, "Personality, Sex, and Leadership Style," Communication Monographs 43 (November 1976): pp. 320-324.

²¹Virginia P. Richmond and James C. McCroskey, "Whose Opinion Do You Trust?" Journal of Communication 25 (Summer 1975): p. 30.

²²Robert N. Bostrom and Alan P. Kemp, "Type of Speech, Sex of Speaker, and Sex of Subject as Factors Influencing Persuasion." Central States Speech Journal 20 (Winter 1969): pp. 245-251.

respondents ratings were dependent upon which author (male or female) was normative in the topic area. For dietetics, females were rated higher in credibility than males, and in city planning males were rated higher than females on credibility scales.²³

Further support to the conclusion that there is no difference between the perceived credibility of males versus females was demonstrated by Vigliano. She concluded that there was no difference between males and females delivering a persuasive speech on the rating scales of trustworthiness, competence, and dynamism.²⁴ A masters thesis by Elorriagia concluded that there was no difference between male and female communicators on perceived credibility during a persuasive message.²⁵ This study was the foundation of an article written by Purnell who stated ". . . the most recent study found no significant difference between females and males on male, female, and neutral topics."²⁶

²³H.N. Mischel, "Sex Bias in the Evaluation of Professional Achievements," Journal of Educational Psychology 66 (1974): pp. 157-166.

²⁴Barbra M. Vigliano, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between the Sex of the Speaker and the Sex of the Listener on Message Comprehension and Judgement of Speaker Credibility." (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, New York University, 1974).

²⁵Richardo L. Elorriagia, "The Effects of Speaker Sex, Audience Sex, and Topic Choice on Source Credibility." (Unpublished M.A. Thesis, California State University, Los Angeles, 1975).

²⁶Sandra E. Purnell, "Sex Roles in Communication: Teaching and Research," Western Speech 40 (Spring 1976): pp. 111-120.

Studies have also isolated race and status as independent variables and demonstrated that they affected perceived credibility. Kraus found that racially heterogeneous pairs of communicators were perceived as more credible when speaking about race relations than homogeneous pairs of communicators.²⁷ Another study found that respondents who were prejudiced against negroes rated black communicators lower on credibility scales than respondents who were unprejudiced.²⁸ Studies which isolated status as an independent variable reported that subjects who perceived the source as higher in status than themselves during a persuasive speech rated that communicator as more credible than subjects who perceived the communicator as lower in status than themselves. An indicator of status was the communicators voice. Bochner and Bochner found that the communicator of a persuasive message with a "high status accent" (Boston accent) was rated significantly higher on credibility scales than the communicator with the "low status accent" (Washington, D.C. Black accent).²⁹

²⁷Sidney Kraus, "An Experimental Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Negroes and Whites in Achieving Racial Attitude Change Via Kinescope Recordings," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Iowa, 1959).

²⁸E. Arnson and B.W. Golden, "The Effect of Relevant and Irrelevant Aspects of Communicator Credibility on Opinion Change," Journal of Personality 30 (Spring 1962): pp. 135-146.

²⁹Brenda Bochner and Arthur Bochner, "The Effects of Social Status and Social Dialect on Listener Responses," Central States Speech Journal 24 (Summer 1973): pp. 75-82.

Verbal communication behaviors other than dialect have also been associated with perceived credibility. Conklin³⁰ and Pearce³¹ both reported that a speaker who exhibited a conversational tone during a persuasive situation was rated significantly higher on perceived credibility than speakers who exhibited a non-conversational tone. Conversational tone was operationally defined to include: a small range of inflection, a consistent low pitch, and low volume. Gunderson and Hopper, however, concluded that rate, pitch and volume did not significantly affect perceived credibility.³²

Corroborating evidence on the importance of tone of voice was found by Zimbardo, et al. in an experiment where subjects were persuaded to eat grasshoppers. In the first treatment condition the communicator addressed an "assistant" by using the last name, shouting orders, and using abusive tonal quality. The same communicator in the second treatment condition addressed the "assistant" with his/her first name, and a normal tone of voice. Responses of subjects viewing the second treatment condition were significantly higher for perceived credibility scales than subjects viewing

³⁰Barnett W. Conklin, "Nonverbal Vocalic Communication and Perceptions of a Speaker," Speech Monographs 38 (August 1971): pp. 235-241.

³¹Barnett W. Pearce, "The Effect of Vocal Cues on Credibility and Attitude Change," Western Speech 35 (Summer 1971): pp. 176-184.

³²D.F. Gunderson and Robert Hopper, "Relationships Between Speech Delivery and Speech Effectiveness," Communication Monographs 43 (June 1976): pp. 158-166.

the first treatment condition. In addition, the Zimbardo, et al. study indicated that interaction with others (the assistant) affected perceived credibility.³³ This was supported by McCroskey, Hamilton and Weiner, who reported that interaction behavior with others affected the perceived credibility of communicators during a group discussion.³⁴

A different study treated communicators' behavior toward an idea as the independent variable. Kaplan and Sharp observed that during a persuasive speech if the communicator's previous behavior toward an idea was positive, and the receivers had a positive attitude toward that same idea, respondents rated the communicator as being more credible. These results seem to be consistent with the balance theories of Heider and Newcomb.³⁵

The number of nonfluencies that a speaker emitted also affected perceived credibility. Miller and Hewgill concluded that on the competence factor of perceived credibility, a speaker with fewer than 25 nonfluencies during a

³³Phillip Zimbardo, Matisyohu Weisenberg, Ira Firestone, and Burton Levy, "Communicator Effectiveness in Producing Public Conformity and Private Attitude Change," Journal of Personality 33 (1965): pp. 233-235.

³⁴James C. McCroskey, Paul R. Hamilton, and Allen N. Weiner, "The Effect of Interaction Behavior on Source Credibility, Homophily, and Interpersonal Attraction," Human Communication Research 1 (Fall 1974): 42-51.

³⁵Stuart J. Kaplan and Harry W. Sharp, "The Effect of Responsibility Attributions on Message Source Evaluation," Speech Monographs 41 (November 1974): pp. 371-380.

five minute speech was rated higher than a speaker with 50, 75, or 100 nonfluencies.³⁶ Support for this conclusion was demonstrated by Sereno and Hawkins, Schliessen, and McCroskey and Mehrely.³⁷

The above findings demonstrated that nonfluencies, tone of voice, perceived status, race and age do affect perceived credibility. Conclusions about the affect of sex were contradictory, and therefore inconclusive. The news directors' opinion that the higher pitched female voice is less credible was not supported by the research.

Message Variables

Previous research findings have demonstrated that word choice, content of the message, humor, and equivocation affect the perceived credibility of message sources. However, studies on the effect of evidence on perceived credibility were inconclusive. Warren reported on significant differences of perceived credibility for neutral sources who used

³⁶Gerald R. Miller and Murray A. Hewgill, "The Effect of Variations in Nonfluency on Audience Ratings of Source Credibility," Quarterly Journal of Speech 50 (February 1964): pp. 36-44.

³⁷See Kenneth K. Sereno and G. Hawkins, "The Effects of Variations in Speaker's Nonfluency Upon Audience Ratings of Attitude Toward the Speech Topic and Speaker's Credibility," Speech Monographs 34 (Winter 1967): pp. 58-64; Herbert F. Schliessen, "Information Transmission and Ethos of a Speaker Using Normal and Defective Speech," Central States Speech Journal 19 (Fall 1968): pp. 169-174; and James C. McCroskey and Samuel R. Mehrely, "The Effects of Disorganization and Nonfluency on Attitude Change and Source Credibility," Speech Monographs 36 (March 1969): pp. 13-21.

citations and for sources who did not use citations.³⁸ Also, Whitehead found no significant difference between communicators who used citations and communicators who did not use citations during a persuasive speech about taxing religious organizations. Different results were reported by Wheelless. His data showed that a communicator who advocated buying a study guide by using explicit references was perceived as more credible than a communicator who advocated buying the guide but did not use references.³⁹

Word choice was shown to affect perceived credibility. For example, Lynn found that a source was perceived higher in credibility when objective language was used during a persuasive speech.⁴⁰ Carbone reported that a source who used diverse vocabulary was rated more credible than a source who did not use diverse vocabulary. The topic of the speech used by Carbone advocated different positions on

³⁸Irving J. Warren, "Special Report: The Effect of Credibility in Sources of Testimony on Audience Attitudes Toward Speaker and Message," Speech Monographs 36 (November 1969): pp. 456-458.

³⁹Lawrence R. Wheelless, "Effects of Explicit Credibility Statements by More Credible and Less Credible Sources," Southern Speech Communication Journal 39 (Fall 1974): pp. 33-39.

⁴⁰Lowell Lynn, "Language Emotionality, Source Credibility and Sex Effects: An Experimental Study of Communication Perception," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Indiana University, 1974).

over population and air pollution.⁴¹ Bradac, Konsky and Davies used interviews of people who advocated the use of a psychology text. Their results showed that low lexical diversity, i.e., range of vocabulary, was associated with low perceived credibility, and that high lexical diversity was associated with high perceived credibility.⁴² Reinsch concluded that the communicator who used an extended metaphor and simile while explaining a political campaign was rated higher on perceived credibility than the source who did not use these devices.⁴³

Other studies have isolated the content of a message and measured its affect on perceived credibility. Infante used a 2 by 2 factorial design to study the effects of likely and unlikely, desirable and undesirable consequences of a political situation in Ecuador. The dependent variable in each cell was perceived credibility scores on the communicator. Infante reported that the credibility dimensions of

⁴¹Tamara Carbone, "Stylistic Variables as Related to Source Credibility: A Content Analysis Approach," Speech Monographs 42 (June 1975): pp. 99-107.

⁴²James J. Bradac, Catherine W. Konsky, and Robert A. Davies, "Two Studies of the Effects of Linguistic Diversity Upon Judgements of Communicator Attributes and Message Effectiveness," Speech Monographs 43 (March 1976): pp. 70-80.

⁴³N. L. Reinsch, Jr., "Figurative Language and Source Credibility: A Preliminary Investigation and Reconceptualization," Human Communication Research 1 (Fall 1974):

character and authoritativeness were judged lower when the communicator disagreed with the audience on the desirability of consequences. Cope and Richardson concluded that a reassuring speech about the effects of nuclear war yielded higher scores on speaker evaluations of perceived credibility than a non-reassuring speech.⁴⁴

Other message variables associated with perceived credibility were humor and equivocation. The data obtained by Taylor demonstrated that a speaker who used humor decreased his perceived credibility.⁴⁵ Finally, it was shown by Williams and Goss that an equivocated message on a proposed liberal arts curriculum produced significantly higher character ratings than the message that stated disagreeable content. These results led the researchers to conclude that equivocating disagreeable arguments helped preserve perceived credibility.⁴⁶

The literature reviewed above did not investigate the possible interaction effect of the source and topic on perceived credibility. However, these studies do demonstrate

⁴⁴Frances Cope and Don Richardson, "The Effects of Reassuring Recommendations in a Fear-Arousing Speech," Speech Monographs 39 (June 1972): pp. 148-150.

⁴⁵Pat M. Taylor, "An Experimental Study of Humor and Ethos," Southern Speech Communication Journal 39 (Summer 1974): pp. 359-366.

⁴⁶Lee M. Williams and Blaine Godd, "Equivocation: Character Insurance," Human Communication Research 1 (Spring 1975): pp. 264-270.

that the source and the message can effect perceived credibility, it was felt that perhaps the channel of communication might also affect perceived credibility. The channel of interest to this study was television, therefore, the next section reviews the literature on the effects of television as a channel of communication.

Channel Variables

Dynamics of Television by Baggaley and Duck, discusses the effects of television on viewers' reactions. The book presents the argument that television technology is an intervening variable which determines viewers' reactions.⁴⁷ They offer one experimental study by McMenamin that specifically investigated the difference between a live presentation and a presentation on television.

The McMenamin study concentrated on students' responses to a Personality Perception Inventory of teachers. One group of students viewed a live classroom lecture. Another group viewed a videotape of the same lecture. Analysis of the data indicated that the group that saw the videotape rated the lecturer as significantly more emphatic. The lecture group rated the lecturer as significantly more poised. Although McMenamin reported that television does affect viewers reactions to a message source, his results

⁴⁷Jon Baggaley and Steve Duck, Dynamics of Television (Westmead, England: Saxon House, 1976).

were judged as inconclusive because significant results were achieved on only 2 of 30 items on the personality inventory.⁴⁸

Another study that reported a significant difference in viewers reactions to the same source was done by Meyer. A group of students in this study with pretested negative attitudes toward Spiro Agnew viewed a videotape of the David Frost show on which Agnew appeared. Another group of students with pretested negative attitudes toward Agnew read a report of the show in the New York Times. A third group of students with pretested negative attitudes toward Agnew neither saw the videotape nor read the Times article. Meyer concluded that those students who read the newspaper article polarized their negative attitudes toward Agnew. However, the group of students who viewed the videotape of Agnew rated him significantly more reliable.⁴⁹

Other studies on the effects of television concluded that the media themselves may have an effect on the viewers' perceptions of the communicator. McLuhan argued that television is a "cool" medium because images are a set of "lighted dots." As a result, the viewer has to "fill in" spaces between the dots and internally create the image. Any medium that required a high degree of psychological

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 66.

⁴⁹Timothy P. Meyer, "News Reporter Bias: A Case Study in Selective Perception," Journal of Broadcasting 16 (Spring 1972): pp. 195-203.

participation by the receiver because of low definition was termed cool. Media of communication that had a high degree of definition and thus require low psychological participation are termed "hot media." McLuhan classes books, photographs, and movies as hot media.⁵⁰

Many studies have challenged the writings of McLuhan. For example, Donnermuth studied the same message presented over television, motion pictures, radio and print. Dependent variables were subjects' preceptions of the communicators' credibility, attitude change, recall of information and perception of the medium. Donnermuth found no significant differences on the dependent variables for any of the media.⁵¹

Miller, et al. used a mock trial to test the difference between subjects' perceptions of trial lawyers on television as opposed to viewing them live. One group of subjects viewed the trial live in the courtroom and another group viewed a videotape of the same trial. After data analysis Miller, et al. concluded that there was no significant difference in credibility ratings of the plaintiff and defendant counsels.⁵²

⁵⁰Marshall McLuhan, Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966).

⁵¹William P. Donnermuth, "How does the Medium Affect the Message?" Journalism Quarterly 51 (Autum 1974): 441-447.

⁵²Gerald Miller, David Bender, Florence Thomas, and Henry Nicholson, "Real Versus Reel: What's the Verdict?" Journal of Communication 24 (Summer 1974): pp. 99-111.

Additional studies have found no difference in attitude change between live presentation and a video tape presentation of propaganda.⁵³ Wilson⁵⁴ and McClure and Patterson⁵⁵ demonstrated that television negatively effected recall of political information.

From the above studies, it appears that television as a channel of communication does not affect the perceived credibility of noncontroversial sources such as trial lawyers and college instructors. However, as Meyer indicated, when the communicator is controversial and respondents have a negative attitude toward him, television can enhance his credibility. The Meyer study also implied that characteristics of receivers in a communication situation can affect the perceived credibility of a message source. The next section reports studies which tested the effect of receiver variables on perceived credibility.

⁵³See Victor D. Wall and John A. Boyd, "Channel Variation and Attitude Change," Journal of Communication 21 (December 1971): pp. 363-367; Roger G. Croft and David V. Stimpson, "Comparison of Attitude Changes Elicited by Live and Videotape Classroom Presentations," AV Communication Review 17 (1969): pp. 315-321; and Akiba A. Cohen "Radio vs. TV: The Effect of the Medium," Journal of Communication 26 (Spring 1976): pp. 29-35.

⁵⁴Edward C. Wilson, "The Effect of the Medium on Loss of Information," Journalism Quarterly 51 (Spring 1974): pp. 111-115.

⁵⁵Robert D. McClure and Thomas E. Patterson, "Print vs. Network News," Journal of Communication 26 (Summer 1976): pp. 23-28.

Receiver Variables

Communicators who were perceived as similar to receivers were rated higher on credibility scales than communicators who were perceived as being dissimilar to receivers. Studies done by Simons, Berkowitz and Moyer; McCroskey, Richmond, and Daly; and King and Sereno supported this conclusion.⁵⁶ In addition, Rogers and Shoemaker implied that an important aspect of credibility in the successful diffusion of innovations is homophily.⁵⁷

A study done by Siegal, Miller and Wotring concluded that some people are more prone to influence by communicators than others. Credibility prone receivers also rated communication sources higher on perceived credibility than receivers who were not credibility prone.⁵⁸

⁵⁶Herbert W. Simons, Nancy N. Berkowitz, and John R. Moyer, "Similarity, Credibility and Attitude Change: A Review and a Theory," Psychological Bulletin (January 1970): p. 1; James C. McCroskey, Virginia P. Richmond, and John A. Daly, "The Development of a Measure of Perceived Homophily in Interperson Communication," Human Communication Research 1 (Summer 1975): pp. 323-332; Stephen W. King and Kenneth K. Sereno, "Attitude Change as a Function of Degree and Type of Interpersonal Similarity and Message Type," Western Speech 37 (Fall 1973): pp. 218-232.

⁵⁷Everett M. Rogers and F. Floyd Shoemaker, Communication of Innovations: A Cross-Cultural Approach 2nd ed. (New York: The Free Press, 1971).

⁵⁸Elliot Siegel, Gerald R. Miller, and Edward C. Wotring, "Source Credibility and Credibility Proneness: A New Relationship," Speech Monographs 26 (June 1969): pp. 118-125.

Rosenfield and Christie summarized most relevant literature on the persuasiveness of males versus females. Although most previous literature concluded that females were more persuasible than males, the Rosenfield and Christie study did not confirm these findings.⁵⁹ In a related study Sloman concluded that neither males nor females consistently rated a male or female speaker's credibility higher or lower during a persuasive message.⁶⁰ One of the most explicit studies on sex of receiver and credibility was conducted by Widgery. Her data demonstrated that female receivers do not evaluate the credibility of male communicators higher than female communicators, and male receivers do not evaluate the credibility of female communicators higher than male communicators. She concluded:

It was assumed that there might be a sex of source by sex of receiver interaction effect. This was not supported by the analysis. It indicates that of the subjects used for this experiment, neither sex discriminated against or compensated for sources of the opposite sex.⁶¹

Research reported above demonstrated that communicators who were perceived as similar to receivers were viewed as more persuasive and more credible. Also, receivers who were

⁵⁹Lawrence B. Rosenfield and Vickie R. Christie, "Sex and Persuasibility Revisited," Western Speech 38 (Fall 1974): pp. 244-253.

⁶⁰Carol L. Sloman, "Sex Variables and Source Credibility: A Multivariate Investigation," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Bowling Green State University, 1974).

⁶¹Robin Noel Widgery, "Sex of Receiver and Physical Attractiveness of Source as Determinants of Initial Credibility Perception," Western Speech 37 (Winter 1974) p. 17.

more prone to credibility influence rated communicators as more credible than receivers who were not as prone toward credibility influence. In addition, the above studies support the conclusions that neither sex is more persuasive and neither sex consistently rated a male or female communicator as more or less credible.

Conclusions

The studies reviewed here indicated that neither sex of the receiver nor television as a channel of communication affected the perceived credibility of a message source. Perhaps the most relevant conclusion was that the communicator and the message interacted to affect perceived credibility. The interaction between message and communicator was experimentally validated by Bowers and Phillips, Tucker, Applbaum and Anatol, and Baudhuin and Davis.⁶² Each of these authors concluded that the criteria receivers used to judge the perceived credibility of a message source in one situation could not be generalized to a different situation. For example, the criteria used to judge a salesman or

⁶²See John Waite Bowers and William A. Phillips, "A Note on the Generalizability of Source-Credibility Scales," Speech Monographs 34 (June 1967): pp. 185-186; Raymond K. Tucker, "On the McCroskey Scales for the Measurement of Ethos," Central States Speech Journal 22 (Summer 1971): pp. 127-129; Ronald F. Applbaum and Karl W. Anatol, "The Factor Structure of Source Credibility as a Function of the Speaking Situation," Speech Monographs 39 (August 1972): pp. 216-222; and Scott Baudhuin and Margaret Davis, "Scales for the Measurement of Ethos: Another Attempt," Speech Monographs 49 (November 1972): pp. 296-301.

political candidate are not the same criteria people use to judge a television newscaster. In addition, each of these authors agreed that perceived credibility was dependent upon the communicator, the message, and the function these performed for the receivers.

Cronkite and Liska also investigated the interaction of message and communicator. They found:

The credibility of sources usually depends heavily upon the specific functions they perform in specific topic-situations for specific listeners.⁶³

Sources in the studies cited here generally performed a persuasive function, i.e., they advocated a specific position on an issue. Local television newscasters, however, perform an informative function, i.e., they do not blatantly advocate a specific position on the issues they report. Also, the communication situations manipulated in previous research consisted of subjects reading a persuasive article attributed to different sources, individuals giving persuasive speeches to subjects in a classroom situation, or political candidates trying to win votes. None of the studies cited employed a television newscaster delivering the evening news.

Because of these differences it was reasoned that the results of the previous research on perceived credibility cited here could not be applied to television newscasters.

⁶³Gary Cronkite and Jo Liska, "A Critique of Factor Analytic Approaches to the Study of Credibility," Communication Monographs 43 (June 1976): p. 105.

The inability to apply previous research gives some indication that research specifically about television newscasters is needed.

Part Two: Television Newscasters

Introduction

A number of studies were located which explored the "ideal" newscaster, variables affecting the perceived credibility of newscasters and articles about the age and sex of newscasters. The following portion of this chapter was divided into three sections: 1) Ideal Newscasters, 2) Variables Affecting the Perceived Credibility of Newscasters, and 3) Age, Sex and Television Newscasters.

Ideal Newscasters

Three survey research studies were designed to isolate specific characteristics which subjects desired of an ideal newscaster. One of the earliest was conducted by Sargent. He was interested in the difference between subjects' perceptions of personal news sources and impersonal news sources. The personal news sources included: NBC Huntley-Brinkley Report, David Lawrence writing in U.S. News and World Report, James Reston reporting in the New York Times, and Gene Rawling writing in Time magazine. The impersonal news sources were: a staff writer in the New York Times, Time, NBC-TV special events shows, and U.S. News and World Report.

His results indicated there were "essential differences in the way personal news sources are received as compared with impersonal sources."⁶⁴ He also concluded that personal sources were perceived as more credible than impersonal ones.

The next major study was reported in 1969-70. Cathcart utilized Q-sort methodology of survey data to determine the characteristics of the most desirable newscaster. Results indicated that subjects' descriptions of the most desirable newscaster included:

(1) Knowledgeable and experienced news authority, (2) more than a reader, he knows the news he delivers, (3) speaks with conviction, (believes what he says), (4) an unbiased approach to news items, (5) honesty and trustworthiness, (6) presents a factual rather than a commentary report, (7) makes difficult information understandable for the average viewer, (8) dedicated to informing and not to entertaining, (9) smooth sophisticated manner, (10) seldom makes errors in grammar and diction.⁶⁵

The antithesis was described as:

(1) Accuracy in reporting may occasionally be questionable, (2) simply reads the news, (3) sensationalized delivery, (4) eyes often glued to the paper from which he is reading, (5) shows partiality when dealing with certain news items, (6) may not always appear to believe in the news he delivers, (7) sound of his voice may be irritating at times, (8) guilty of occasional grammatical errors or mispronunciations, (9) displays certain physical habits or characteristics which might distract some viewers, and (10) seems rather unenthusiastic while delivering the news.⁶⁶

⁶⁴Leslie W. Sargent, "Communicator Image and News Reception," Journalism Quarterly 42 (Winter 1965): p. 40.

⁶⁵William I. Cathcart, "Viewer Needs and Desires in Television Newscasters," Journal of Broadcasting 14 (Winter 1969-70): p. 60.

⁶⁶Ibid.

The author also concluded that these results could not be generalized further than the 32 respondents that took part in the study.

In a similar study, Sanders and Pritchett tried to determine some of the nonverbal characteristics that determine a newscaster's appeal. Based on responses to a survey, the authors concluded that the "ideal" newscaster would be a male, 31-55 years of age, blonde or brunette hair with a medium build and medium height. In addition, the "ideal" newscaster was described as wearing a dark coat, white shirt and a solid or striped tie. The authors also concluded that the newscaster would be white.⁶⁷

The three studies cited here indicated that the ideal news source was personal, and a white male between the ages of 31-55. Other qualities of the "ideal" news persons were that they be knowledgeable about the news, but an unbiased, objective and trustworthy source who makes the news understandable. Their reading of the news should be smooth without many errors in grammar and diction, while they maintain eye contact with the camera. Eye contact and delivery rate have been experimentally tested; the next section reports the results of these and other studies.

⁶⁷Keith P. Sanders and Michael Pritchett, "Some Influences of Appearance on Television Newscasters Appeal," Journal of Broadcasting 15 (Summer 1971): pp. 353-362.

Variables Affecting the Perceived Credibility of Newscasters

Variables which have affected the perceived credibility of newscasters include eye contact, delivery rate, camera angle, and bodily activity. Tankard observed that subjects rated photographs of a model newscaster who had direct eye contact, i.e., looking straight at the camera, as being more alert, stronger, less afraid, more receptive, sincere, active and attractive, than photographs of the same model not looking directly at the camera. Overall, photographs of the model looking directly at the camera were rated higher on credibility scales than models looking downward or to the side.⁶⁸

Smith and McEwen used radio news broadcasts to test the effects of delivery rate on subjects' evaluations of newscasters. They found that over 190 words per minute decreased the amount of information recalled by the subjects. In addition, there was a decrease in the general evaluation of newscasters speaking faster than 190 words per minute.⁶⁹

There have been three studies on the relationship of camera angle to newscaster credibility. Tiemens videotaped three simulated newscasters who delivered a six-minute

⁶⁸James W. Tankard, "Eye Contact Research and Television Announcing," Journal of Broadcasting 15 (Winter 1970-71): pp. 83-90.

⁶⁹James R. Smith and William J. McEwen, "Effects of Newscast Delivery Rate on Recall and Judgment of Sources," Journal of Broadcasting 18 (Winter 1973-74): pp. 73-78.

newscast. Each was photographed at eye level, 18 inches above eye level, and 18 inches below eye level. His analysis yielded no interaction effect between newscasters and camera angle. He concluded: "The dramatic effect of the low or high camera angle remains an hypothesis that has not been satisfactorily tested."⁷⁰ Conflicting results were reported by Anderson. He found that camera angle can provide an implicit cue about a newscaster and have a subsequent effect on the meaning of the message. Specifically, he concluded that the level camera angle did not product a difference in subjects' reactions to the simulated newscasters regardless of eye contact. In addition, he demonstrated that newscasters received more positive ratings when filmed with a high vertical angle as opposed to a low vertical angle.⁷¹ The third study of camera angle was reported by Mandell and Shaw. Their results showed that a low camera angle plus hand movements were judged as being more active and potent than newscasters not using hand movements and filmed at a different camera angle.⁷²

⁷⁰Robert K. Tiemens, "Some Relationships of Camera Angle to Communicator Credibility." Journal of Broadcasting 14 (Fall 1970): pp. 483-490.

⁷¹Leonard H. Anderson, "The Effect of Filming a Television News Source by Vertical Camera Angle, Horizontal Camera Angle, and Source Eye Contact on Source Credibility and Audience Attitudes Toward the Televized Message," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1973).

⁷²Lee M. Mandell and Donald L. Shaw, "Judging People in the News--Unconsciously: Effect of Camera Angle and Bodily Activity," Journal of Broadcasting 17 (Summer 1973): pp. 353-362.

The Tankard study and the Smith and McEwen study validated the survey research of Sanders and Pritchett who found that a television newscaster should maintain eye contact. However, none of these studies substantiated the conclusion that an "ideal" newscaster should be a male of any specific age. Of course, this was probably because these three studies investigated male newscasters only. The final section of this chapter reports studies which deal directly with the effect of age and sex on the perceived credibility of television newscasters.

Age, Sex and Television Newscasters

Limited research was located which isolated the effects of age and sex on the perceived credibility of television newscasters. Smith examined television news strategies that he claimed made it a source of persuasion in America. Concerning the strategy of newscaster characteristics, he stated:

Even casting is part of the strategy. The more important the role in media news, the more austere the correspondent. ABC's newsman is silver haired; the anchor woman austere. CBS's Cronkite, named the most trusted man in America in a Harris poll was nominated as a Vice Presidential possibility. On the same news show, Eric Severeid, looking like the man who posed for Andrew Jackson's portrait on the \$20 bill, intones the commentary.⁷³

⁷³Craig R. Smith, "Television News as Rhetoric," Western Speech 41 (Summer 1971): p. 149.

Smith implied that the perceived credibility of network commentators Harry Reasoner, Barbara Walters, Walter Cronkite, and Eric Sverreid, lies in their maturity.

The effect of sex and age on the perceived credibility of television newscasters was investigated by Wood. Two confederates, one male and one female, portrayed local television newscasters. Each was videotaped twice, once as a "younger" newscaster and once as an "older" newscaster. Stage makeup was applied to make the confederates appear "older," Wood found that the "older" male was perceived as the most credible of all the newscasters. For "younger" newscasters, the female was perceived as more credible than the male.⁷⁴

Sex of newscasters has been the subject of more empirical research. Busby reviewed and summarized literature on how the mass media portrayed sex roles of women. She reviewed 118 articles and studies which concentrated on women in the mass media. Of these studies, she found only one that investigated women as television newscasters.⁷⁵

Stone concentrated on attitudes toward television newswomen. He surveyed the opinions of university professors,

⁷⁴Richard Nelson Wood, "The Effects of Sex and Age on the Perceived Credibility of a Simulated Local Television Newscast," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Arizona, 1978).

⁷⁵Linda J. Busby, "Sex-Role Research on the Mass Media," Journal of Communication 25 (Fall 1975): pp. 107-131.

parents in a small town, fourth and fifth grade students and television news directors.⁷⁶ He concluded that:

most of the news directors said they thought their viewers would prefer a man as an evening newscaster, the most frequent response in all audience groups surveyed was that it made no difference to them whether the newscaster was a man or a woman.⁷⁷

Gelfman reviewed the backgrounds of thirty women who were employed in television news in New York City. In addition she interviewed the executives and directors that these women worked for to determine their attitudes toward these female news employees. Her overall conclusion was that women in the past had been discriminated against but were making advances in the field of television news, as commentators, anchor persons, news writers, and directors.⁷⁸

Whittaker and Whittaker reported that a sample audience found no statistically-significant difference in the perceived acceptance, believability, or effectiveness of male and female professional newscasters. Although there were no differences based on sex, it was found that subjects tended to believe the first newscast they heard, regardless of its content or the newscaster involved. In order to control quality of delivery, Whittaker and Whittaker chose

⁷⁶Stone's findings were discussed in detail in Chapter 1.

⁷⁷Vernon A. Stone, "Attitudes Toward Television Newswomen," Journal of Broadcasting 18 (Winter 1973/74): p. 62.

⁷⁸Judith S. Gelfman, "Women in Television News: The On-Air Woman Newscaster in New York," (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1974).

four network newscasters, two males and two females, on the basis of similar professional competency and stature. However, the two males broadcast primarily on radio (WCBS News Radio) and the two females primarily on television (CBS News). Even so, each of the four recorded two versions of a newscast on audio tape.⁷⁹ This would seem to be a weakness in the study in that the results may be applicable only to radio because of the lack of a video presentation. Another possible weakness in the study is the employment of comparatively unsophisticated measurement. The questionnaires used open-ended questions which called for subjective evaluations of each newscaster.

Tan, Raudy, Huff, and Miles reported an experimental analysis of the effectiveness and believability of male and female newscasters among child audiences. The study showed that newscaster sex did not affect believability ratings. Girls, however, learned more from a male than from a female newscaster. Newscaster sex did not affect retention of the newscast by boys.⁸⁰

⁷⁹Susan Whittaker and Ron Whittaker, "Relative Effectiveness of Male and Female Newscasters," Journal of Broadcasting 20 (Spring 1976): p. 177.

⁸⁰Alexis Tan, Jack Raudy, Cary Huff, and Janet Miles, "Children's Reactions to Male and Female Newscasters: Effectiveness and Believability," Quarterly Journal of Speech 66 (April 1980): pp. 201-205.

Conclusion

One general conclusion drawn from these studies about television newscasters was that research was sparse and inconclusive. Considering the growing pressure on the broadcast industry from government agencies and citizen's groups over alleged discrimination by sex, it would seem that more research on sex differences in broadcast communication or on the factors of believability of newscasters would have been undertaken. Although Sanders and Pritchett reported that the "ideal" newscaster would be a male between the ages of 31 and 55, the other studies cited showed no difference in the believability of male versus female newscasters. Another criticism of the research is that no study specifically discussed what makes a newscaster, male or female, believable.

Summary and Conclusions

This review of research has attempted to isolate variables that affected the perceived credibility of a communicator. Research reported in Part One: Perceived Credibility, revealed that perceived credibility is dependent upon the interaction of the communicator, his message and the function these perform for the listener. It was found that the communicators in most previous research on perceived credibility performed a persuasive function with speakers advocating a specific position on an issue. Television newscasters, however, perform an informative function in that

they do not blatantly advocate a position on the stories that they report. In addition, previous research has demonstrated that the criteria people used to evaluate communicators are dependent upon the specific situation. For example, the criteria used to evaluate a political speaker is different than the criteria used to evaluate a television newscaster. Because of these differences the studies on perceived credibility cited earlier could not be applied to television newscasters.

Inability to generalize previous research indicated that specific studies about television newscasters needed to be undertaken. Results of research which concentrated on television newscasters was sparse, inconclusive and therefore, could not be used to determine if sex affected the perceived credibility of television newscasters. Research that manipulated the variable of sex produced inconsistent results. In addition, two of the studies which investigated newscasters gender used survey research methodology. This methodology did not discover relationships because it lacked the ability to manipulate independent variables.⁸¹ This indicated that more research needed to be done on the effect of sex on the perceived believability of local television newscasters. The following chapter describes the methodology used in the present study.

⁸¹Julian J. Simon, Basic Research Methods in Social Science: The Art of Empirical Investigation (New York: Random House, 1969): p. 243.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The literature revealed three instruments which reportedly measure the perceived credibility of television newscasters; they were constructed by McCroskey and Jenson,¹ Markham,² and Smith.³ In subsequent research, McCroskey and Jenson's instrument has been most used. Their instrument was based on statistical analysis of 1,370 subjects' responses to 53 semantic differential scales. McCroskey and Jenson report that their instrument has internal reliability and validity. They used analysis of variance procedures rather than test retest procedures to establish reliability. The validity arguments are best stated by the authors:

¹James C. McCroskey and Thomas A. Jenson, "Image of Mass Media News Sources," Journal of Broadcasting 19 (Spring 1975): pp. 165-175.

²David Markham, "The Dimensions of Source Credibility of Television Newscasters," Journal of Communication 18 (March 1968): pp. 57-64.

³Craig R. Smith, "Television News as Rhetoric," Western Speech 41 (Summer 1977): pp. 147-159.

this investigation sought development of a measure of media source that could be used across subject populations with reasonable assurance of reliability and validity. Within the generalizability reservation noted above, the scales in Table 1 are offered as such a measure. Internal reliability estimates (employing analysis of variance procedures) for each of the dimensions with each of the samples exceed .90. Construct validity is suggested both by visual examination of the scales and the fact that reasonable factorial stability was observed. Predictive validity is suggested from results of our analysis involving prediction of data on communication and communication related behavior scales. One additional reservation must be stressed. These scales are offered for use as measures of the image of mass media news sources only. Whether they can be employed for other types of mass media sources is a question to be addressed in later research. These scales are definitely not appropriate for other types of sources which have been included in other phases of our research program.⁴

The reservation they referred to was that dimensionality may have differed for negroes and Japanese Americans. Their sample did not include a significant number of these types of subjects.

McCroskey and Jenson's final instrument consisted of 25 semantic differential scales distributed among five components of credibility. They suggested these would be appropriate to measure the perceived credibility of television newscasters.⁵

⁴McCroskey and Jenson, "Image of Mass Media News Sources," pp. 178-179.

⁵Ibid., p. 178.

It was felt that the McCroskey and Jenson instrument is inappropriate for this study or any other study of television newscasters for three major reasons. First, this study is of the relative believability of male versus female television news sources. McCroskey and Jenson employed all news media sources:

The three network television news programs, The New York Times, Time, Newsweek, the local newspaper you most often read, this school's student newspaper (student subjects only), the local radio station to which you most often listen, and the local late evening television news program you most often watch.⁶

The research reviewed in Chapter II indicated that the criteria people used to evaluate credibility of communication sources are dependent upon the specific situation. It would seem that reading a news magazine, reading a student newspaper, and watching a televised newscast would be vastly different situations requiring different criteria of evaluation.

Second, the McCroskey and Jenson study did not report the sex of the newscasters used. All male newscasters may have produced results which are inapplicable to female newscasters.

Third, news directors have most often voiced reservations concerning female newscasters although survey research has shown that viewers do not necessarily share their

⁶Ibid., p. 171.

attitudes. While the McCroskey and Jenson study used semantic differential scales representing dimensions of source credibility reported by Norman, McCroskey, Markham, and Whitehead, and Berlo, Lemert, and Mertz,⁷ these scales do not reflect any attitudes concerning television newscasters. Since news directors usually are responsible for hiring newscasters, their attitudes concerning what the public wants is important. Therefore, an instrument which reflects news directors' attitudes was constructed and then given to subjects.

The present study was run in two major parts. First, news directors' attitudes concerning what makes a newscaster believable were surveyed. Their descriptions were converted to semantic differential scales. Next, two videotaped newscasts were produced, one with a male anchor person and the other with a female anchor person. Subjects viewed one of the newscasts and then responded to the semantic differential scales. This chapter describes the methodology involved. It is divided into four parts: Part One discusses the methodology employed in the News Directors' survey. It describes the survey instrument and how it was constructed, and the subjects and how they were selected. Part Two reports the experimental methodology. It describes the subjects used in the experiment, how they were selected,

⁷Ibid., pp. 170-171.

assigned to treatment conditions, and tested. Part Three describes the procedures used to control videotape production, news script construction, and delivery. Part Four describes how the data was scored and analyzed.

Part One: News Directors' Survey

In order to ascertain news directors' opinions concerning the believability of television newscasters, a national telephone survey was conducted. Although telephone surveys have obvious drawbacks, one was used here because of its speed and relatively low cost. It was considered to be superior to the only other viable option, the mail questionnaire, because of the higher rate of response.⁸

The news directors surveyed were selected, using a table of random numbers, from the Broadcasting Yearbook's "Directory of Television Stations in the United States."⁹ One hundred news directors were interviewed, representing 48 states. A list of the stations contacted is contained in Appendix A.

The news directors were first asked if they were responsible for hiring the newscasters at their stations. This hiring authority was important since it implies some experience with evaluation criteria.

⁸This is according to Fred Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, 2nd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), p. 414.

⁹Broadcasting Yearbook (Washington, D.C.: Broadcasting Publications, Inc., 1979), pp. B-85-B-135.

Since the dimensions of the news directors' opinions were not readily apparent, open-ended questions were asked first.¹⁰ The news directors were simply asked to describe a believable newscaster. Next, a predetermined set of adjectives was presented and respondents are asked to rate the adjectives as "very important," "important," "not so important," or "not descriptive" in describing a believable newscaster. Finally, the news directors were asked basic demographic questions concerning their professional experience.¹¹

Part Two: Experimental Methodology

The population used in the study contained approximately 1500 undergraduate students enrolled in a multi-section speech fundamentals course at Louisiana State University. To simplify data collection, block sampling procedure, which has been used successfully by other researchers in Speech Communication, was used.¹² Block sampling enabled collection of data from approximately 25 subjects per testing session.

¹⁰This is according to suggestions by Charles W. Roll and Albert H. Cantril, Polls (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1972), p. 103.

¹¹See Appendix B.

¹²See Terry H. Ostermeier, "Effects of Type and Frequency of Reference Upon Perceived Source Credibility and Attitude Change," Speech Monographs 34 (June 1967): pp. 137-144; and Pat M. Taylor, "An Experimental Study of Humor and Ethos," Southern Speech Communication Journal 39 (Summer 1974): pp. 359-366.

Sample size was determined by using Nunnally's suggestion that the sample should contain subjects equal to or greater than 10 times the number of variables.¹³ If each of the semantic differential scales is considered to be a variable, this formula would yield the appropriate sample size of 520 subjects, since there were 52 scales. Data was gathered on 544 subjects: 300 males and 244 females.

According to A Guide For Graduate Students and Assistants of the Louisiana State University Speech Department, students in the basic speech courses can be used as subjects only with the consent of the course coordinator who, in turn, contacts individual instructors on behalf of the researcher. The instructor must then also consent to the use of students and class time. Since the researcher is thereby limited to only those sections in which the instructor is willing to participate, it is impossible to randomly select from the entire population. Therefore, each section was randomly assigned to treatment conditions.

The testing situation for each treatment condition began when subjects arrived at their speech class. The experimenter brought a color video cassette playback machine and a color television monitor into the classroom. Instructors introduced the experimenter to the potential

¹³Jim C. Nunnally, Psychometric Theory (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 355.

respondents.

The experimenter handed schedules to the subjects which consisted of: a sign-up form, which requests the student's voluntary participation and guarantees subject anonymity as required by the Louisiana State University Committee on the Use of Humans and Animals as Research Subjects; an instruction sheet; three demographic questions; 52 semantic differential scales; and two close-ended questions. The instructions were then read by the experimenter and subjects were asked to read along. The instructions on how to respond to semantic differential scales were those prescribed by Osgood, Tannenbaum and Suci.¹⁴ After the instructions, the experimenter read one of three descriptions of the newscaster the subjects were about to see. Subjects were then told that the tape they were about to see was an "audition tape," and therefore had some obvious flaws. The experimenter then played the appropriate videotape. After it was completed, the subjects recorded their reactions to the semantic differential scales and close-ended questions. (See Appendix C.) Finally, the experimenter collected the schedules, briefly explained the purposes of the study, debriefed the subjects concerning the false nature of the newscast, and asked for any additional comments or questions. The entire process

¹⁴Charles E. Osgood, Percy H. Tannenbaum, and George J. Suci, The Measurement of Meaning (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1971), pp. 82-84.

including the final questions and answers took approximately twenty minutes, and all testing was completed within one week.

Part Three: Newscast Production

Two confederates were hired to portray local television newscasters. Both had performed on television before. They were selected primarily on the basis of how well their physical characteristics adhered to what the research has shown to be an "ideal" newscaster. The male was white, 43 years old, brown hair, with a medium height and build. The female newscaster was white, 24 years old, brunette, with an average height and build.

Both the female and the male were dressed similarly to actual male and female local television newscasters in the Baton Rouge area. The male wore a beige three-piece suit, white shirt and a dark brown tie for his presentation of the news script. The female wore a light blue blouse that had a loose fitting turtleneck with a dark blue blazer for her presentation of the news script.

The opinion was sought of the news director of WRBT Channel 33, the Baton Rouge NBC affiliate, who was present during the videotaping session. He was asked if the male and female confederates would be accepted as actual local television newscasters. The news director stated that in his opinion both the male and the female confederates would be accepted as local television newscasters.

The experimenter viewed many television news programs and discovered that both local and network evening news shows began with the anchor person reading news stories for approximately six to seven minutes before the first commercial message. It was reasoned that subjects would be accustomed to that format, and therefore, the news script composed for the experiment contained approximately six-and-one-half minutes of copy. The news items were taken from United Press International and the Associated Press wire services which are the major sources of news for local stations.

The experimenter composed a 1,054 word script (see Appendix D) to be delivered at approximately 168 words per minute. The male confederate read the script at 150 words per minute and the female confederate read the news script at a rate of 162 words per minute. Even though the confederates did not read the news script at exactly the same rate, it was believed that the differences in effect would be slight. The reason for this assumption was that a rate of less than 190 words per minute does not appear to effect the perceived credibility of newscasters, according to the research.¹⁵ In addition each confederate emitted some non-fluencies during each treatment condition. The male

¹⁵James R. Smith and William J. McEwen, "Effects of Newscast Delivery Rate on Recall and Judgment of Sources," Journal of Broadcasting 18 (Winter 1973-74): pp. 73-78.

emitted seven nonfluencies and the female emitted four. Again, the research has shown that the effect of these on perceived credibility appeared to be slight.¹⁶ Finally, the female newscaster spoke one less word than the male. In the story concerning the Jefferson Island Salt Dome collapse, she referred to "Governor Treen." The male said "Governor Dave Treen."

Subjects may also have been affected by the technical quality and production of the newscast. Because of this, the videotapes used as stimuli were produced and directed by the production staff of WRBT Channel 33, the NBC affiliate in Baton Rouge. The WRBT staff was instructed to produce the tapes exactly as they would produce their regular evening news shows. There were some differences between the stimulus newscasts and regular evening newscasts. Since subjects' attention was to be focused on the newscaster, the newscasts did not include filmed stories by other reporters. This was a possible weakness in the videotape, as two subjects mentioned the fact that regular newscasts are less "boring" because the viewer does not have to watch the newscaster all of the time. This reaction was anticipated and two measures were taken to add visual variety without taking attention away from the

¹⁶Gerald R. Miller and Murray A. Hewgill, "The Effect of Variations in Nonfluency on Audience Ratings of Source Credibility," Quarterly Journal of Speech 50 (February 1964): pp. 36-44.

newscaster. First, slides which graphically pertained to the news stories were inserted. Second, the newscaster turned back and forth between the two cameras. As a result the picture that appeared on the monitor was of the confederate seated at the news desk with the camera focused at eye level. The background changed from slides to a pale blue background when the cameras were switched.

After viewing several different local newscasts, it was determined that most local newscasts today begin with news, sports, and weather "headlines" with theme music under. After the commercial break, the actual news begins. Therefore, the stimulus newscasts began with the newscaster introducing him/herself and then reading the script. Approximately three minutes after he/she had begun their name appeared on screen at chest level and remained on the screen for approximately ten seconds then was taken out. When the confederate had finished reading the news script, he/she announced the commercial message. The camera shot changed to a long shot of the entire news set, the newscaster maintained eye contact with the camera, and theme music was played. This picture was then dissolved to indicate the completion of the simulated local television newscast. This procedure was repeated exactly for both newscasts.

Finally, a teleprompter was used so each newscaster maintained eye contact with the camera throughout the

simulated newscast. According to previous research, this should have aided the newscasters' credibility.¹⁷

Part Four: Data Analysis

The data analysis took place in three parts: The news directors' survey data was analyzed and converted to semantic differential scales, the subjects' responses to the semantic differential scales were scored, and a multiple discriminant analysis was run on the subjects' responses.

News Directors' Survey

The news directors responded to a predetermined set of 60 adjectives. They were asked to rate the adjective as "very important," "important," "not so important," or "not descriptive," in describing a believable newscaster. It was decided that the only adjectives which would be converted to semantic differential scales were those which at least 50 percent of the newscasters rated "very important" or "important." The news directors rated 38 of the 60 adjectives as being "very important" or "important." The open-ended question was treated in a similar manner. When at least 50 percent of the newscasters chose a word to describe a believable newscaster it was used. Only six adjectives met this requirement. In addition the news directors were asked if they thought there are vocal

¹⁷James W. Tankard, "Eye Contact Research and Television Announcing," Journal of Broadcasting 15 (Winter 1970-71): pp. 83-90.

qualities which tend to make newscasters more believable. This question yielded eight adjectives which had at least a 50 percent response rate. This data will be used for future research. The results of the news directors' survey are listed in Appendix E.

Data Scoring

The adjectives obtained from the news directors' survey were converted to semantic differential scales by selecting an adjective's antonym from Roget's Thesaurus.¹⁸ The bipolar adjectives were presented in the questionnaire in random order with the "desirable" side of the scale randomly appearing on the left or the right. This was to guard against potential response sets.

For the 52 semantic differential scales a score of seven was assigned to the most favorable position and a score of one was assigned to the negative side of the scale. The result was a digit value for each response on the seven point scale. These values were 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1. This scoring procedure was prescribed by Osgood et. al.¹⁹

¹⁸Albert H. Morehead, ed., The New American Roget's College Thesaurus in Dictionary Form (New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1977)¹

¹⁹Osgood, et. al., The Measurement of Meaning, pp. 86-88.

Statistical Analysis

The data was analyzed using the DISCRIMINANT sub-program available in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, which performs discriminant analysis.²⁰ Discriminant analysis was used because it statistically distinguishes between groups of cases.

Subjects viewed one of two newscasts, either a male or a female newscaster. However, prior to viewing the newscast, the subjects read one of three descriptions of the newscaster. The descriptions were used to manipulate the perceived credibility of the newscaster. There were then six groups subject to the discriminant analysis: low-credible female, medium-credible female, high-credible female, low-credible male, medium-credible male, and high-credible male.

The descriptions intended to manipulate credibility were determined in the following manner. According to the news directors' survey, 16 adjectives were rated "very important" or "important" by 90-100 percent of those surveyed. Those adjectives were: intelligent-96%, poised-90%, responsible-92%, confident-97%, trained-96%, qualified-92%, pleasant-92%, informed-100%, composed-90%, competent-99%, reliable-96%, fluent-92%, rational-99%,

²⁰Norman H. Nie, C. Hadlai Hull, Jean G. Jenkins, Karin Steinbrenner, and Dale H. Bent, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd. ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975): pp. 434-467.

consistent-92%, unbiased-98%, and neat-92%. (See Appendix E.) In the open-ended question, the news directors most often described a believable newscaster in terms of experience, for example, "a working journalist," or "a good writer and reporter first."

In describing the newscasters, years and kinds of experience and level of education were used for the adjectives "trained, qualified, and experienced." The word "confident" was used for the adjectives "poised, confident, and composed." The remainder of the adjectives were attributed to "a news director," which should be perceived to be a highly credible source. The adjectives are presented in a number and intensity relative to the treatment condition of the group (high, medium, or low credibility). These descriptions are contained in Appendix C.

When using discriminant analysis, to distinguish between the groups the researcher selects a collection of discriminating variables that measure characteristics on which the groups are expected to differ. In this case, scores on semantic differential scales were expected to differ according to description and sex of the newscaster. The mathematical objective of discriminant analysis is to weight and linearly combine the discriminating variables in some fashion so that the groups are forced to be as statistically distinct as possible. In other words, one would want to be able to "discriminate" between the groups in the sense of being able to tell them apart.

Discriminant analysis attempts to do this by forming one or more linear combinations of the discriminating variables. These "discriminant functions" are of the form:

$$D = d_{i1}Z_1 + d_{i2}Z_2 + \cdots + d_{ip}Z_p$$

where D_i is the score on the discriminant function i , the d 's are weighting coefficients, and the Z 's are the standardized values of the p discriminating variables used in the analysis. The functions are formed in such a way as to maximize the separation of the groups. Once the discriminant functions have been derived, the two research objectives of this technique, analysis and classification, may be pursued.²¹

The analysis aspect provided statistical tests for measuring the success with which the discriminating variables actually discriminate when combined into the discriminant functions. This is similar to determining the number of factors in factor analysis. The weighting coefficients can be interpreted much as in multiple regression or factor analysis. In this respect they serve to identify the variables which contribute most to differentiation along the respective dimension (function).²²

The use of discriminant analysis as a classification techniques comes after the initial computation. Once a set

²¹Ibid., p. 435.

²²Ibid., pp. 435-436.

of variables is found which provides satisfactory discrimination for cases with known group memberships, a set of classification functions can be derived which will permit the classification of new cases with unknown memberships. Thus, if characteristics or adjectives are found that do well in predicting what makes a male or female newscaster believable to viewers, these can be used to predict the likely credibility of other newscasters. The results of the discriminant analysis are reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The following reports the results of the discriminant analysis of 44 variables (responses to semantic differential scales) on six groups (high, medium and low-credible male and female). The analysis will be interpreted here in six parts: selection of variables for analysis, canonical discriminant functions, rotation of the data, the discriminant functions, canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means, and classification results.

Selection of Variables for Analysis

The variables were selected for inclusion in the discriminant analysis on the basis of their discriminating power. In this study, the full set of 44 variables contained excess information about the groups' differences and some of the variables were not very useful in discriminating among the groups. By sequentially selecting the "next best" discriminator at each step, a reduced set of variables was found which is as good as, or better

than, the full set. This is referred to as the "step-wise method" of selection.

The process begins by choosing the single variance which has the highest value on the selection criterion. This initial variable is then paired with each of the other available variables, one at a time, and the selection criterion is computed. The new variable which in conjunction with the initial variable produces the best criterion value is selected as the second variable to "enter the equation." These two are then combined with each of the remaining variables, one at a time, to form triplets which are evaluated on the criterion. The triplet with the best criterion value determines the third variable to be selected. This procedure of locating the next variable that would yield the best criterion score, given the variables already selected, continues until all variables are selected or no additional variables provide a minimum level of improvement. Intermediate results are printed by the program following each step.¹

As variables are selected for inclusion, some variables previously selected may lose their discriminating power. This occurs because the information that they contain about group differences becomes available in some combination of

¹Norman H. Nie, C. Hadlai Hull, Jean G. Jenkins, Karin Steinbrenner, and Dale H. Bent, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2nd. ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975): p. 447

the other included variables. Such variables are redundant. Thus, at the beginning of each step, each of the previously selected variables is tested to determine if it still makes a sufficient contribution to discrimination. If any are eligible for removal, the least useful is eliminated. A variable which has been removed at one step may re-enter at a later step if it satisfies the selection criterion at that time.

The selection criterion chosen for this study is the overall multivariate F ratio for the test of differences among the group centroids. The variable which maximizes the F ratio also minimized Wilks' Lambda, a measure of group discrimination. This test takes into consideration the differences between all the centroids and the cohesion (homogeneity) within the groups. A variable is considered for selection only if its partial multivariate F ratio is larger than a specified value. The partial F ratio measures the discrimination introduced by the variable after taking into account the discrimination achieved by the other selected variables. This partial F test is performed before the variable is evaluated on the stepwise entry criterion. If the partial F is too small the variable is not considered for inclusion, regardless of its value on the entry criterion.

Using this method, 14 variables were eliminated from the analysis. These variables are listed in Table 1. The 30 variables which remained in the analysis are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 1
VARIABLES ELIMINATED FROM ANALYSIS

Variable Name	Tolerance*	F to Enter	Wilks' Lambda
sociable-retiring	0.5433298	0.99250	0.2363700
good natured-mean	0.4824942	0.28132	0.2380199
verbal-quiet	0.6283214	0.91532	0.2365479
illogical-logical	0.5719324	0.50764	0.2374924
confident-lacks con.	0.5609470	0.77757	0.2368662
qualified-unqualified	0.4927609	0.75547	0.2369174
unpleasant-pleasant	0.5807622	0.58755	0.2372834
competent-incompetent	0.4645036	0.36924	0.2378147
expert-inexpert	0.5900122	0.41601	0.2377057
reliable-unreliable	0.5753346	0.53050	0.2374392
outgoing-withdrawn	0.5025935	0.45037	0.2376257
neat-careless	0.5652970	0.55040	0.2373930
professional-unprof.	0.5343439	0.52447	0.2374532
authentic-false	0.6188050	0.66622	0.2371241

*An additional test, performed before a variable is actually accepted, is a test to see if the "tolerance" for this variable is sufficiently high. A tolerance check is needed to detect situations in which rounding error during the inversion of the pooled within-groups covariance matrix would have a serious effect upon the results.

TABLE 2
VARIABLES REMAINING IN THE ANALYSIS

Variable Name	Tolerance	F to Remove	Wilks' Lambda
friendly-unfriendly	0.5846374	1.5990	0.2424280
intelligent-unintelligent	0.5733352	1.3311	0.2417998
poised-nervous	0.6040325	2.3596	0.2442112
relaxed-tense	0.6986314	5.6738	0.2519817
responsible-irresponsible	0.4894762	1.0605	0.2411653
experienced-inexperienced	0.5792213	2.8409	0.2453398
calm-anxious	0.6815040	2.1054	0.2436154
trained-untrained	0.6439671	4.6376	0.2495522
sympathetic-unsympathetic	0.7414563	2.5680	0.2447000
just-unjust	0.6381732	1.5526	0.2423191
bold-timid	0.6401858	3.5394	0.2469774
energetic-tired	0.5493035	1.4669	0.2421184
attractive-unattractive	0.6949229	6.0990	0.2529787
informed-uninformed	0.4997725	1.8396	0.2429920
composed-excitabile	0.6760429	1.8648	0.2430511
active-passive	0.6389188	3.3277	0.2464811
impressive-unimpressive	0.5049764	1.1407	0.2413535
fluent-hesitating	0.5994731	2.8078	0.2452621
rational-irrational	0.5859645	1.4700	0.2421256
imaginative-unimaginative	0.5519671	3.9664	0.2479786
scrupulous-unscrupulous	0.7693331	2.3483	0.2441848
consistent-inconsistent	0.5717473	1.3224	0.2417794
original-unoriginal	0.5708834	1.6046	0.2424412
open-secretive	0.6253628	2.1962	0.2438281
biased-unbiased	0.7193510	9.0959	0.2600050
interesting-dull	0.4852588	1.2408	0.2416819
sincere-insincere	0.5377400	2.2826	0.2440309
authoritative-groundless	0.4778578	1.1998	0.2414921
communicative-disjointed	0.4763078	1.7259	0.2427255
personable-unpersonable	0.5578632	1.9942	0.2433546

Canonical Discriminant Functions

The SPSS DISCRIMINANT subprogram provides two measures for judging the importance of discriminant functions. The first is the relative percentage of the eigenvalue associated with the function. The eigenvalue is a special measure computed in the process of deriving the discriminant function. It is a measure of the relative importance of the function. The sum of the eigenvalues is a measure of the total variance existing in the discriminating variables. Since there is no fixed rule for deciding when the eigenvalue is too small to accept, all functions will be reported and criterion for deciding their importance will be discussed.

A further aid in judging the importance of a discriminant function is its associated canonical correlation. The canonical correlation is a measure of association between the discriminant function and the set of $(g - 1)$ variables which define the g group memberships. It explains how closely the function and the "group variable" are related, which is just another measure of the function's ability to discriminate among the groups. If the logic is reversed, one can interpret the canonical correlation squared as the proportion of variance in the discriminant function explained by the groups.

Another criterion for eliminating discriminant functions is to test for the statistical significance of discriminating information not already accounted for by the

earlier functions. As each function is derived, starting with no (zero) functions, Wilks' Lambda is computed. Lambda is an inverse measure of the discriminating power in the original variables which has not yet been removed by the discriminant functions--the larger Lambda is, the less information remaining. Lambda is also transformed into a chi-square statistic for an easy test of statistical significance. The canonical discriminant functions are reported in Table 3.

Rotation of the Data

Most statisticians agree that many direct unrotated factor solutions are not sufficient. That is, in most cases rotation will improve the interpretation by reducing some of the ambiguities which often accompany the preliminary analysis. The ultimate goal of any rotation is to obtain some theoretically meaningful factors, and if possible the simplest structure.

In discriminant analysis, the discriminant functions are derived such that the first function (factor) separates the groups as much as possible. The second function separates them as much as possible in an orthogonal direction given the first separation, the third function provides maximal separation in another orthogonal direction, etc. The end result is that the groups are as distinct as possible given the original discriminating variables. The discriminant functions can be considered as defining axes in a geometric space in which each case and group centroid are points.

TABLE 3
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS

Function Number	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variance	Cumulative Percent	Canonical Correlation	:	After Function	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-Squared	D.F.	Sig.
					:	0	0.2386790	752.13	150	0.0000
1	1.44183	71.12	71.12	0.7684210	:	1	0.5828131	283.44	116	0.0000
2	0.22645	11.17	82.29	0.4296932	:	2	0.7147891	176.28	84	0.0000
3	0.18675	9.21	91.50	0.3966927	:	3	0.8482785	86.387	54	0.0034
4.	0.11674	5.76	97.26	0.3233235	:	4	0.9473084	28.419	26	0.3382
5.	0.05562	2.74	100.00	0.2295465	:					

The spatial orientation of these axes is essentially arbitrary, except for the properties of descending orders of maximum separation. As in factor analysis, it is useful to rotate these axes while holding constant the relative locations of the cases and centroids. The VARIMAX rotational solution was used here. This solution establishes axes in which the coefficients for the discriminating variables are either close to 1.0 or close to 0.0. It has the advantage of improving the interpretability of the new axes since the main variables contributing to each axis are highlighted.

The function matrix was rotated to redistribute the variance from the earlier functions to the later functions. This resulted in a simpler and theoretically more meaningful factor pattern. The VARIMAX rotation transformation matrix is shown in Table 4. The total amount of variance is the same as in Table 3--100.00 percent. The major difference is in the percentage of variance for each of the functions. It is different because the functions are not extracted in their order of importance based on the amount of variance extracted.

TABLE 4
VARIMAX ROTATION TRANSFORMATION MATRIX

% of Variance	Func 1	Func 2	Func 3	Func 4	Func 5
	54.56	17.94	11.96	8.95	6.60
Func 1	0.86322	0.43685	0.23592	0.08773	0.02561
Func 2	0.27016	-0.41862	-0.48744	0.71177	0.08696
Func 3	-0.07952	-0.28765	0.66519	0.23820	0.64169
Func 4	-0.26449	0.20958	0.42586	0.58845	-0.59875
Func 5	-0.32494	0.71225	-0.28794	0.28755	0.47065

The Discriminant Functions

Discriminant functions are the primary objectives of this study. They represent the underlying dimensions that summarize or account for the believability of television newscasters. The discriminant functions will be explained in three parts: determining the number of discriminant functions, criteria for the significance of function loadings, and naming of functions.

Determining the Number of Discriminant Functions

The maximum number of discriminant functions derived by the SPSS DISCRIMINANT subprogram is either one less than the number of groups or equal to the number of discriminating variables, whichever is smaller. The dependence on the number of original variables is due to the mathematical impossibility of creating more new variables than were started with. In this study, $(g - 1)$, or five functions were derived. However, the researcher must decide if all of the functions derived by the subprogram are statistically significant. Since there is no fixed rule for determining significance, these decisions are sometimes difficult. The eigenvalue and the canonical correlation, as shown in Table 3, are two measures for judging the importance of discriminant functions, however, the percent of variance explained by the function, the discriminant function coefficient, and the sample size must also be considered. For this reason all five functions will be presented and

rationale for their inclusion or exclusion will be explained.

Criteria for the Significance of Function Loadings

The criterion for the significance of function loadings vary according to many factors, including sample size and number of variables. Some researchers set an eigenvalue of 1.0 as the criterion for termination of extraction. For a variable to be considered loaded on a resulting function, a loading of .60 or higher is sometimes required with no loading of .40 or higher on any other function. Finally, for a function to be considered meaningful, the requirement is sometimes set that at least two variables must have satisfactory loadings on that function. The following suggestions for deciding which functions are worth considering were used in this study.

The first suggestion is not based on any mathematical proposition except that it represents approximately 10 percent of the variance of a particular variable. It is a rule of thumb which has been used frequently as a means of making a preliminary examination of the function matrix. In short, loadings greater than $\pm .30$ are considered significant. Loadings of $\pm .40$ are considered more important, and if the loadings are $\pm .50$ or greater they are considered very significant. Thus, the larger the absolute size of the function loading, the more significant the loading is in interpreting the matrix. These guidelines are considered

useful when the sample size is 50 or larger.

Second, a function loading represents the correlation between an original variable and its respective function. In determining a significance level for interpretation of loadings, an approach could be used which is similar to that of interpreting correlation coefficients. Specifically, when the sample size is at least 300, as it is here, loadings of $\pm .11$ and $\pm .15$ are recommended for the .05 and .01 levels of significance, respectively. Since it is difficult to assess the amount of error involved in this type of analysis, it is probably safer to adopt the .01 level as the criterion for significance.

Third, a disadvantage of the first two suggestions is that the number of variables being analyzed or the specific function being examined are not considered. It has been shown that as the analyst moves from the first function to later functions, the acceptable level for a loading to be judged significant should increase. The fact that unique variance and error variance begin to enter in later functions means that some adjustment upward in the level of significance should be included.

The number of variables being analyzed is also important in deciding which loadings are significant. As the number of variables being analyzed increases, the acceptable level for considering a loading significant decreases. Adjustment for the number of variables is particularly

true as the analyst moves from the first function extracted to later functions. Specifically, when the sample size is at least 100. as it is here, and the significance level is .05, the following guidelines are applicable: (1) a significant loading on the fifth function with 20 variables would be $\pm .216$, but with 50 variables it would drop to $\pm .202$, and (2) a significant loading on the tenth function with 20 variables would be $\pm .261$, but only $\pm .214$ with 50 variables.

To summarize the criteria for the significance of function loadings, the following guidelines can be stated: (1) the larger the sample size the smaller the loading to be considered significant; (2) the larger the number of variables being analyzed the smaller the loading to be considered significant, and (3) the larger the number of functions, the larger the size of the loading on later functions to be considered significant for interpretation.² The present study has a large sample size, a large number of variables were analyzed, and the number of functions is relatively small, therefore, smaller loadings were still considered to be significant.

Naming of Functions

When a satisfactory function has been derived, the analyst must attempt to assign some meaning to it. The

²D. Child, The Essentials of Factor Analysis (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970), pp. 234-236.

process involves substantive interpretation of the pattern of function loadings for the variables, including their signs, in an effort to name each of the functions. Before interpretation, a minimum acceptable level of significance for a function loading must be selected. All significant function loadings typically are used in the interpretation process. But variables with higher loadings will influence the name or label selected to represent a function to a greater extent. The signs are interpreted just as with any other correlation coefficients. On each function like signs mean the variables are positively related and opposite signs mean the variables are negatively related.

In this study, the cutoff point for significance was set at $\pm .20$. Although many high loadings were obtained, this low cutoff was established because of the large sample size, the large number of variables, and the relatively small number of functions derived.

The functions derived in this study are listed in Table 5. Function 1 has one significant loading, Function 2 has eight significant loadings, Function 3 has nine significant loadings, Function 4 has six significant loadings, and Function 5 has five significant loadings. Function 1 shows the variables "unbiased-biased" and "intelligent-unintelligent" are positively related to each other, although "intelligent-unintelligent" is just under the significance level. This suggests that newscasters who are perceived as being "unbiased" and "intelligent" are perceived as being

TABLE 5
THE DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS

Function/scales	Loadings
FUNCTION 1 - PROFESSIONALISM	54.56 PERCENT OF VARIANCE
unbiased-biased	0.51775
intelligent-unintelligent	0.19801
FUNCTION - STYLE	17.94 PERCENT OF VARIANCE
relaxed-tense	0.58653
fluent-hesitating	-0.45779
friendly-unfriendly	-0.37499
scrupulous-unscrupulous	0.35437
open-secretive	0.34696
impressive-unimpressive	-0.27406
just-unjust	0.25880
sympathetic-unsympathetic	0.21553
FUNCTION 3 - TRUSTWORTHINESS	11.96 PERCENT OF VARIANCE
bold-timid	0.48376
original-unoriginal	0.42698
rational-irrational	0.41335
sincere-insincere	0.41004
informed-uninformed	-0.38895
responsible-irresponsible	-0.34264
interesting-dull	0.31205
consistent-inconsistent	-0.26418
experienced-inexperienced	0.22948
FUNCTION 4 - SOPHISTICATION	8.95 PERCENT OF VARIANCE
attractive-unattractive	0.73130
trained-untrained	0.53800
poised-nervous	0.40157
communicative-disjointed	0.40097
calm-anxious	-0.32063
authoritative-groundless	-0.29465
FUNCTION 5 - CHARACTER	6.60 PERCENT OF VARIANCE
imaginative-unimaginative	-0.70571
active-passive	0.57930
personable-unpersonable	0.49535
energetic-tired	0.36276
composed-excitable	0.27404

most credible.

Function 2 shows "relaxed-tense," "Scrupulous-unscrupulous," "open-secretive," "just-unjust," and "sympathetic-unsympathetic" are positively related to each other and negatively related to "fluent-hesitating," "friendly-unfriendly," and "impressive-unimpressive."

Function 3 shows "bold-timid," "original-unoriginal," "rational-irrational," "sincere-insincere," "interesting-dull," and "experienced-inexperienced" are positively related to each other and negatively related to "informed-uninformed," "responsible-irresponsible," and "consistent-inconsistent."

Function 4 displays "attractive-unattractive," "trained-untrained," "poised-nervous," and "communicative-disjointed," are positively related to each other and negatively related to "calm-anxious" and "authoritative-groundless."

Function 5 shows "active-passive," "personable-unpersonable," "energetic-tired," and "composed-excitabile," are positively related to each other and negatively related to "imaginative-unimaginative."

In discriminant analysis, variables which have no discriminating power are excluded from analysis, therefore the variables remaining in these five functions accounted for 100 percent of the variance. The functions were labeled "Professionalism," "Style," "Trustworthiness," "Sophistication," and "Character." The naming of functions is not

very scientific and is based on the subjective opinion of the analyst. The names are logical and represent the underlying nature of the functions. They should facilitate the presentation and understanding of the function solutions.

Canonical Discriminant Functions Evaluated at Group Means

By averaging the scores for the individual cases within a particular group, the group mean on the respective function is derived. For a single group, the means on all the functions are referred to as the group centroid, which is the most typical location of a case from that group in the discriminant function space. A comparison of the group means on each function shows how far apart the groups are along that dimension. The functions are arranged in order of decreasing importance, so that a given difference between group means on the third or fourth function is not as meaningful as the same difference on the first function.

The canonical discriminant function coefficients are of great analytic importance in and of themselves. When the sign is ignored, each coefficient represents the relative contribution of a function to a group. The sign merely denotes whether the function had a positive or negative influence on the group. The canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means are listed in Table 6.

In this study, the canonical discriminant function coefficients help to determine differences in male and female newscaster believability. Group 1 (in Table 6)

TABLE 6
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS EVALUATED AT GROUP MEANS

Group	Function 1 PROF.	Function 2 STYLE	Function 3 TRUST.	Function 4 SOPH.	Function 5 CHARACTER
01 High-cred female	1.16060	0.55259	-0.38233	0.46039	-0.28511
02 Med-cred female	-0.00871	-0.41803	0.41816	0.55509	-0.02885
03 Low-cred female	-0.75540	-0.84298	-0.57406	-0.07839	0.52580
04 High-credible male	1.32765	0.10408	0.60467	-0.52095	0.07017
05 Med-credible male	-0.22741	0.45570	0.43228	0.05286	0.30859
Low-credible male	-1.69073	-0.50313	-0.51988	-0.51988	-0.59151

represents the high-credible female newscaster and Group 4 represents the high-credible male. The data in this table indicates that the order of importance of the functions differs according to the sex of the newscaster. Table 7 shows the specific functions in order of importance for the high-credible female and high-credible male newscasters. This seems to indicate that when male and female television newscasters are perceived as being believable, they are so because of the same qualities but in different orders of importance.

Classification Results

The previous discussion has dealt with the analytic uses of discriminant analysis, but it is also a powerful classification technique. By classification is meant the process of identifying the likely group membership of a case when the only information known is the case's values on the discriminating variables. Another use of classification is in testing the adequacy of the derived discriminant functions. By classifying the cases used to derive the functions in the first place and comparing predicted group membership with actual group membership, one can empirically measure the success in discrimination by observing the proportion of correct classifications.

Classification is achieved through the use of a series of classification functions, one for each group. There are several ways to derive classification functions. The

TABLE 7
DIFFERENCES IN IMPORTANCE OF FUNCTIONS
OF HIGH-CREDIBLE FEMALE AND HIGH-CREDIBLE MALE
TELEVISION NEWSCASTERS*

HIGH-CREDIBLE FEMALE	HIGH-CREDIBLE MALE
PROFESSIONALISM	PROFESSIONALISM
unbiased	unbiased
intelligent	intelligent
STYLE	TRUSTWORTHINESS
relaxed	bold
fluent	original
friendly	rational
scrupulous	sincere
open	informed
impressive	responsible
just	interesting
sympathetic	consistent
SOPHISTICATION	experienced
attractive	SOPHISTICATION
trained	attractive
poised	trained
communicative	poised
calm	communicative
authoritative	calm
TRUSTWORTHINESS	authoritative
bold	STYLE
original	relaxed
rational	fluent
sincere	friendly
informed	scrupulous
responsible	open
interesting	impressive
consistent	just
experienced	sympathetic
CHARACTER	CHARACTER
imaginative	imaginative
active	active
personable	personable
energetic	energetic
composed	composed

*Presented in order of importance

traditional classification equations are derived from the pooled within-groups covariance matrix and the centroids for the discriminating variables. The resulting classification coefficients are to be multiplied by the raw variable values, summed together, and added onto a constant. The equation for one group would appear as

$$C_i = c_{i1}V_1 + c_{i2}V_2 + \dots + c_{ip}V_p + c_{i0}$$

where C_i is the classification score for group i , the c_{ij} 's are the classification coefficients with c_{i0} being the constant, and the V 's are the raw scores on the discriminating variables. There is always a separate equation for each group; thus, in this study of six groups, each case will have six scores. The case would be classified into the group with the highest score.³

Under the assumption of a multivariate normal distribution, the classification scores can be converted into probabilities of group membership. The rule of assigning a case to the group with the highest score is then equivalent to assigning the case to the group for which it has the greatest probability of membership. For those cases in groups used in the analysis, the actual group membership is, of course, known. The purpose of classifying these cases is to see how effective the discriminating variables are. If a large proportion of misclassifications occur, then

³Nie, et al Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, p. 445.

TABLE 8

CLASSIFICATION RESULTS

Actual Group		No. of Cases	1	2	3	4	5	6
Group	1	97	55 56.7%	9 9.3%	5 5.2%	18 18.6%	7 7.2%	3 3.1%
Group	2	91	14 15.4%	41 45.1%	10 11.0%	6 6.6%	16 17.6%	4 4.4%
Group	3	91	7 7.7%	10 11.0%	39 42.9%	4 4.4%	3 3.3%	28 30.8%
Group	4	92	15 16.3%	6 6.5%	2 2.2%	61 66.3%	7 7.6%	1 1.1%
Group	5	87	6 6.9%	19 21.8%	8 8.2%	11 12.6%	39 44.8%	4 4.6%
Group	6	86	3 3.5%	2 2.3%	11 12.8%	0 0.0%	7 8.1%	63 73.6%

PERCENTAGE OF 'GROUPED' CASES CORRECTLY CLASSIFIED: 54.78%

the variables selected are poor discriminators. From the classification table (Table 8) one can also tell whether the errors tend to fall into certain groups, which perhaps are not as distinct as others.

There is no lowest proportion of correct classifications established which determines success in discrimination. As table 8 shows, the discriminant functions were successful in that most actual group cases fell into the predicted group member classification. The most distinct groups were the "high-credible female" (Group 1)--with 56.7% of the cases correctly classified, the "high-credible male" (Group 4)--with 66.3% of the cases correctly classified, and the "low-credible male" (Group 6)--with 73.6% of the cases correctly classified. There was no large proportion of misclassifications in any of the groups. This would seem to indicate that the variables are good discriminators. This means that not only do the variables describe viewer perceptions of high-credible male and female newscasters, but the absence of these variables describes perceptions of low-credible male and female newscasters.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The statistical results of this experiment were reported in Chapter IV. Chapter V summarizes and discusses those results and states some possible weaknesses of the study, conclusions, and generalizations for communication practitioners. In addition there is a possible explanation for the observed results and implications for further research.

Summary and Discussion of Results

The results of this study are most clearly understood when summarized and discussed in answer to the research questions asked in Chapter 1.

1. Are female newscasters perceived to be as believable as male newscasters by television viewers?

The discriminant analysis suggested the presence of five dimensions of believability of television newscasters. The dimensions were labeled "Professionalism," "Style," "Trustworthiness," "Sophistication," and "Character." While the dimensions were the same for male and female newscasters, the order of importance of the dimensions differed. Overall, the canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group

means showed the high-credible male to be slightly more believable than the high-credible female. However, the responses to the female newscaster were higher on some of the dimensions than the responses to the male newscaster. The male newscaster was rated higher on "Professionalism," "Trustworthiness," and "Sophistication." The female newscaster was rated higher on "Style" and "Character." This information is displayed in Table 9.

TABLE 9
CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS
EVALUATED AT GROUP MEANS OF
HIGH-CREDIBLE MALE AND FEMALE NEWSCASTERS

Function	High-Credible Male	High-Credible Female
Function 1 PROFESSIONALISM	1.32765	1.16060
Function 2 STYLE	0.10408	0.55259
Function 3 TRUSTWORTHINESS	0.60467	-0.38233
Function 4 SOPHISTICATION	-0.52095	0.46039
Function 5 CHARACTER	0.07017	-0.28511

2. Do news directors' perceptions of believable television newscasters coincide with viewer perceptions?

The methodology used to determine news directors' perceptions was entirely different from that used to determine viewer perceptions. Therefore no statistical correlation can be run between the perceptions. However, the adjectives used by the news directors and the viewers' responses to semantic differential scales can be rank-ordered according to importance. This gives some indication of how closely the news directors' perceptions of believable television newscasters coincide with viewer perceptions. Although the information in Table 10 has no statistical significance, it seems obvious that the adjectives news directors use to describe believable newscasters in no way coincide with viewer perceptions. The news directors' perceptions and the viewers' perceptions seem even more different when it is remembered that all 44 variables are considered to be significant by at least 50 percent of the news directors surveyed and the viewers' responses to the last 14 variables were not significant and were not included in the analysis.

3. Does dimensionality of the perceived believability of television newswomen differ from dimensionality of perceived believability of television newsmen?

TABLE 10
COMPARISON OF NEWS DIRECTORS' PERCEPTIONS
AND VIEWERS' PERCEPTIONS

Viewers' Rankings*	F	News Directors Rankings	%
unbiased	9.0950	informed	100
attractive	6.0990	rational	99
relaxed	5.6783	competent	99
trained	4.6376	unbiased	98
imaginative	3.9664	confident	97
bold	3.5394	intelligent	96
active	3.3277	trained	96
experienced	2.8409	reliable	96
fluent	2.8078	responsible	92
sympathetic	2.5680	qualified	92
poised	2.3596	pleasant	92
scrupulous	2.3483	fluent	92
sincere	2.2826	consistent	92
open	2.1962	neat	92
calm	2.1054	poised	90
personable	1.9942	composed	90
composed	1.8648	relaxed	88
informed	1.8396	experienced	88
communicative	1.7259	interesting	88
original	1.6046	calm	86
friendly	1.5990	logical	85
just	1.5526	expertness	84
rational	1.4700	original	84
energetic	1.4669	just	81
intelligent	1.3311	energetic	78
consistent	1.3224	open	76
interesting	1.2608	friendly	72
authoritative	1.1998	verbal	72
impressive	1.1407	outgoing	68
responsible	1.0605	imaginative	68
sociable	0.99250	impressive	64
verbal	0.91532	sociable	60
confident	0.77757	attractive	60
qualified	0.75547	scrupulous	60
authentic	0.66622	bold	60
pleasant	0.59755	authoritative	60
neat	0.55040	professional	59
reliable	0.53050	sincere	58
professional	0.52447	communicative	55
logical	0.50764	personable	54
outgoing	0.45037	authentic	53
expert	0.41601	active	52
competent	0.36924	good natured	52
good natured	0.28132	sympathetic	50

*Ranked in descending order of importance.

Although dimensionality of the perceived believability of television newswomen was the same as dimensionality of television newsmen, the response to the female newscaster was higher on some dimensions than the response to the male newscaster. The male newscaster was rated higher on "Professionalism," "Trustworthiness," and "Sophistication." The female newscaster was rated higher on "Style" and "Character." (See Table 9.)

4. Is the construct of believability sex-bound, or can women exhibit certain qualities and be as believable as men?

Since the male newscaster was slightly more believable than the female newscaster and the male newscaster was rated higher on "Professionalism," "Trustworthiness," and "Sophistication," it would seem to follow logically that if a woman exhibited the qualities underlying these three functions, she would be perceived as being more believable.

5. Are believable male newscasters and believable female newscasters perceived as such because of different factors?

Again it would seem that male newscasters are perceived as believable when they exhibit the qualities underlying "Professionalism," "Trustworthiness," and "Sophistication," and female newscasters exhibit the qualities underlying "Style" and "Character." However, it is most important for both sexes to exhibit the qualities underlying "Professionalism." That is, if a newscaster exhibits the qualities of being "unbiased" and "intelligent," he or she will be

perceived as being believable.

6. Can a measure be developed that can be used by news directors to test prospective newscasters with reasonable assurance that it will be reliable and valid in measuring believability?

Although more research needs to be done before a measure can be developed that can be used by news directors to test the believability of prospective newscasters, this study is certainly a beginning.

Four criteria of measuring instruments were taken from articles which discussed credibility measurement. These criteria are 1) the instrument must be specifically designed to measure the perceived believability of television newscasters; 2) the instrument must be based on a large sample,¹ i.e., ten times the number of variables;² 3) reliability must be tested with other than test retest procedures;³ and 4) arguments for the validity of the instruments must be made. The first two criterion were easily met by this study. Reliability was not directly tested. Construct validity is suggested both by visual examination of the scales and the fact that reasonable factorial stability was observed.

¹Wayne E. Hensley, "A Criticism of 'Dimensions of Source Credibility: A Test for Reproducibility'," Speech Monographs 41 (August 1974): p. 293.

²Jum C. Nunnally Psychometric Theory (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 359.

³Thomas M. Steinfatt, "A Criticism of 'Dimensions of Source Credibility: A Test for Reproducibility'," Speech Monographs 41 (August 1974): p. 291.

Predictive validity is suggested from the classification results. (See Table 8). It is therefore concluded that with just a small amount of additional research, the dimensions found in this study can be developed into a measuring instrument.

Possible Weaknesses of the Study

There were three possible weaknesses of this study which may have had an effect on the results. The first weakness was mentioned earlier. Some subjects mentioned the fact that regular newscasts are less "boring" than the simulated newscast used in this study because the viewer does not have to watch the newscaster all of the time. Film and videotaped news stories by other reporters were not included in the simulated newscast since subjects' attention was to be focused on the newscaster. Perhaps they should have been included since subjects may have rated the newscasters lower on the semantic differential scales simply because they became bored with the presentation.

The second possible weakness of the study also pertained to the simulated newscasts. The confederate who portrayed the male anchor person was a local actor who had experience doing local television commercials and community theatre. The confederate who portrayed the female anchor person was a news reporter for WRBT Channel 33 in Baton Rouge who had limited experience as an anchor person. The two confederates were of approximately equal ability. In

the opinion of the Channel 33 news director, both would be acceptable as local newscasters, but neither had the ability to move to a larger market area or to the networks. Perhaps if the anchor persons were of higher ability, the results of the study would have been different.

A third possible weakness was the fact that subjects were limited to responding to semantic differential scales which reflected news directors' perceptions of what makes a newscaster believable. It was thought that since news directors usually are responsible for hiring newscasters, their attitudes concerning what the public wants is important. However, this study found that the adjectives used by news directors to describe a believable newscaster did not coincide with viewers' opinions. Perhaps viewers' opinions should have been surveyed also prior to the construction of the instrument. It may be that they were limited to the news directors' responses and may define believability in an entirely different manner.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The conclusions and recommendations presented here pertain not only to the results of this study, but to the position of women in television news and to the research process itself.

1. Television news directors should work to establish criteria for evaluating the believability of both male and female newscasters. Although they claim to be reflecting the wants and needs of the public in their hiring decisions,

the results of this research would seem to indicate that they are not. This general lack of a critical standard can be exemplified by the news directors' responses to the open-ended question "How would you describe a believable newscaster?" This question elicited a dribble of responses which was of little empirical value. As one surveyed news director said, "What do I look for when I look? I never really thought about it before." This lack of a critical standard implies arbitrary decision-making by the news directors which may reflect the needs of the station, but certainly does not reflect the needs of the public.

2. Television news directors should also be more concerned about research which will be beneficial to them. Of those surveyed here, the vast majority seemed concerned, interested and very helpful to the researcher. Many asked for a summary of the research findings. However, there were a large number of news directors who were very uncooperative and were more concerned with "second-guessing" the researcher and trying to evaluate the research itself, than with answering the research questions.

3. Many studies of television newscasters and of televised presentations of speakers have used the instrument developed by McCroskey and Jenson. The results of this study would seem to indicate that the instrument is inappropriate for this type of research. The criteria people use to evaluate television newscasters is in fact different from that used to evaluate "all news media sources." Table 11

TABLE 11
THE MCCROSKEY AND JENSON INSTRUMENT AND
THE PRESENT RESEARCH FINDINGS

McCroskey and Jenson's Dimensions/Scales	Dimensions/Scales Found in this Research
COMPETENCE qualified-unqualified expert-inexpert reliable-unreliable believable-unbelievable incompetent-competent intellectual-narrow valuable-worthless uninformed-informed	PROFESSIONALISM unbiased-biased intelligent-untelligent
CHARACTER cruel-kind unsympathetic-sympathetic selfish-unselfish sinful-virtuous	STYLE relaxed-tense fluent-hesitating friendly-unfriendly scrupulous-unscrupulous open-secretive impressive-unimpressive just-unjust sympathetic-unsympathetic
SOCIABILITY friendly-unfriendly cheerful-gloomy good-natured-irritable sociable-unsociable	TRUSTWORTHINESS bold-timid original-unoriginal rational-irrational sincere-insincere informed-uninformed responsible-irresponsible interesting-dull consistent-inconsistent experienced-inexperiences
COMPOSURE composed-excitabile calm-anxious tense-relaxed nervous-poised	SOPHISTICATION attractive-unattractive trained-untrained poised-nervous communicative-disjointed calm-anxious authoritative-groundless
EXTROVERSION meek-aggressive timid-bold talkative-silent extroverted-introverted verbal-quiet	CHARACTER imaginative-unimaginative active-passive personable-unpersonable energetic-tired composed-excitabile

lists the dimensions of the McCroskey and Jensen instrument and the dimensions found in this study. While some criteria of the two are similar they are, for the most part, very different. The same evaluation holds true of the findings in this study. The dimensions found here should be used only to evaluate the believability of television newscasters and not any presentation of televised information. For example, it could not be used to evaluate televised commercials, public service announcements, weather persons, sportscasters, or political addresses. The evaluation criteria must be different.

4. Subjects' reactions to male versus female newscasters could be a result of socialization. As Roberts pointed out socialization in part is the result of the communication environment in which individuals live. One of the aspects of the communication environment is the models that are portrayed on television.⁴ The subjects in this study were primarily college freshmen and sophomores whose mean age was 20 years old. These individuals attend to the media and it therefore follows that the models presented in the media could have affected their evaluations of the confederates they viewed on television in this experiment. While most of the subjects were probably raised on a steady diet of Walter Cronkite, because of their youth, they are probably

⁴Donald F. Robert, "Communication and Children: A Developmental Approach," in Handbook of Communication eds. Ithiel De Sola, Frederick W. Frey, Wilbur Schramm, Nathan Maccoby, and Edwin D. Parker, (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973).

almost equally accustomed to Barbara Walters and Jessica Savitch.

Although Affirmative Action opened the doors of television news to women more than ten years ago, they are still on shakey ground. This is primarily because of the viewers' emphasis on the woman's physical attractiveness, rather than on her ability. In this study "attractiveness" was surpassed only by "unbiased" in the subjects' evaluations of believable newscasters. Even Walter Cronkite has often voiced concern about the appeal of the "pretty face" in television news. This importance placed on attractiveness affects men as well as women, but women, it seems, are more adversely affected. For example, the television critic of the New Orleans Times-Picayune/States-Item recently rated women on network television, news shows as well as entertainment shows, according to attractiveness. Of Jessica Savitch he said, "I don't care what she says, I just like to watch her say it."⁵ No one ever said that about Walter Cronkite. Comments such as this imply more concern with attractiveness, than with ability of the newscaster.

Implications for Further Research

Communication practitioners should be aware that the conclusions of this study cannot be statistically generalized

⁵Bob Wisehart, "The Annual Pig Ratings of Women on TV," The Times-Picayune/The States-Item 8 April 1981, sec. 5, p. 2.

to all television viewers because all television viewers in America were not sampled. The conclusions cannot be generalized beyond the specific population from which the sample was drawn. The time and resources were not available to sample a non-student population, therefore research needs to be conducted, using these variables, across different subject populations. This is necessary for the development of a measure of the believability of television newscasters which could be used by news directors with reasonable assurance of reliability and validity.

Also it must be understood that this experiment only attempted to isolate variables which affected the perceived believability of television newscasters. Certainly there are a vast number of other variables which may also affect the perceived believability of television newscasters. For example, does style of dress, attractiveness, or race affect the perceived believability of television newscasters? If so, what is the nature of the effects? Clearly what needs to be done is a research program that isolates verbal and nonverbal cues and determines how they interact to affect the perceived believability of television newscasters. With this base, research can then be done on how perceived believability of newscasters affects the information which they present and on which most Americans rely.

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APPENDIX A
RANDOM SAMPLE OF NEWS DIRECTORS

State	City	Station	Phone Number
Alabama	Montgomery	WSFA-CH.12	205-281-2900
Alaska	Juneau	KTOO-CH.3	907-586-1670
Arizona	Tucson	KVOA-CH.4	602-792-2270
Arkansas	Little Rock	KTHV-CH.11	501-376-1111
Arkansas	Little Rock	KATV-CH.7	501-372-7777
California	San Francisco	KBHK-CH.44	415-885-3750
California	Oakland	KTVU-CH.12	415-834-2000
California	Modesto	KLOC-CH.19	209-529-2024
California	Bakersfield	KERO-CH.23	805-327-1441
California	Sacramento	KXTV-CH.10	916-441-2345
Colorado	Grand Junction	KREX-CH.5	303-242-5000
Colorado	Denver	KWGN-CH.2	303-832-2222
Connecticut	Hartford	WFSB-CH.3	203-525-0801
Delaware	-----	-----	-----
Florida	Tampa	WFLA-CH.8	813-876-0602
Florida	Sarasota	WXLT-CH.40	813-922-0777
Florida	Jacksonville	WJXT-CH.4	904-399-4000
Florida	Miami	WTUJ-CH.4	305-374-6361
Georgia	Atlanta	WXIA-CH.11	404-892-1611
Georgia	Savannah	WSAV-CH.3	912-236-0303
Hawaii	-----	-----	-----
Idaho	Boise	KCYI-CH.6	208-467-3301
Illinois	Peoria	WMBD-CH.31	309-688-3131
Illinois	Chicago	WMAQ-CH.5	312-861-5555
Illinois	Chicago	WLS -CH.7	312-263-0800
Indiana	South Bend	WSBT-CH.22	219-233-3141
Indiana	Fort Wayne	WANE-CH.15	219-424-1515
Indiana	Bloomington	WTIU-CH.30	812-337-8000
Iowa	Cedar Rapids	WCRG-CH.9	319-398-8422
Iowa	Des Moines	WHO -CH.13	515-288-6511
Kansas	Hays	KAYS-CH.7	913-625-2578
Kentucky	Paducah	WPSD-CH.6	502-442-8214
Louisiana	Baton Rouge	WRBT-CH.33	504-766-3233
Louisiana	New Orleans	WWL -CH.4	504-529-4444
Maine	Bangor	WABI-CH.5	207-947-8321
Maine	Portland	WCSH-CH.6	207-772-0181
Maryland	Salisbury	WBOC-CH.16	301-749-1111
Massachusetts	Adams	WCDC-CH.19	518-436-4822
Massachusetts	Boston	WCVB-CH.5	617-449-0400
Michigan	Battle Creek	WUHQ-CH.41	616-968-9341
Michigan	Detroit	WWJ -CH.4	313-222-2000
Minnesota	Duluth	WOIO-CH.10	218-727-6864
Minnesota	Austin	KAAL-CH.6	507-433-8836

State	City	Station	Phone Number
Minnesota	Minneapolis	KMSP-CH.9	612-925-3300
Mississippi	Biloxi	WLOX-CH.13	601-896-1313
Mississippi	Jackson	WSY -CH.12	601-355-7991
Missouri	St. Louis	KTVI-CH.2	314-647-7777
Missouri	Kansas City	WDAF-CH.4	816-753-4567
Montana	Missoula	KECI-CH.13	406-721-2063
Montana	Billings	KTVQ-CH.2	406-252-5611
Nebraska	Hay Springs	KDUH-CH.4	308-638-2741
Nebraska	North Platte	KNOP-CH.2	308-532-2222
Nevada	Reno	KTVN-CH.2	702-786-2212
Nevada	Las Vegas	KSHO-CH.13	702-876-1313
New Hampshire	Manchester	WWUR-CH.9	603-623-8061
New Jersey	Newark	WNJU-CH.47	201-643-9100
New Mexico	Albuquerque	KOBI-CH.4	505-243-4411
New York	Rochester	WROC-CH.8	716-288-8400
New York	Buffalo	WIVB-CH.4	716-874-4410
New York	Albany	WTEN-CH.10	518-436-4822
New York	Binghamton	WICZ-CH.40	607-798-7873
New York	Syracuse	WIXT-CH.9	315-446-4780
North Carolina	High Point	WGHP-CH.8	701-852-4101
North Carolina	Winston-Salem	WXLL-CH.12	919-723-9241
North Dakota	Fargo	WDAY-CH.6	701-237-6500
Ohio	Cleveland	WEWS-CH.5	216-432-1500
Ohio	Dayton	WHIO-CH.7	513-254-5311
Oklahoma	Tulsa	KOTV-CH.6	918-582-9233
Oregon	Portland	KOIN-CH.6	503-243-6666
Oregon	Bend	KTVY-CH.21	503-389-6511
Pennsylvania	Philadelphia	KYW -CH.3	215-238-4700
Pennsylvania	Erie	WSEE-CH.35	814-455-7575
Pennsylvania	Harrisburg	WTPA-CH.27	717-236-2727
Pennsylvania	Altoona	WTAJ-CH.10	814-944-2031
Rhode Island	Providence	WPRI-CH.12	401-438-7200
South Carolina	Columbia	WLTX-CH.19	803-776-3600
South Dakota	Rapid City	KOTA-CH.3	605-366-8012
Tennessee	Memphis	WREG-CH.3	901-525-3333
Tennessee	Johnson City	WJHL-CH.11	615-926-2151
Tennessee	Knoxville	WATE-CH.6	615-637-9666
Texas	Wichita Falls	KAUZ-CH.6	817-322-6957
Texas	Abilene	KRBC-CH.9	915-692-4242
Texas	San Angelo	KCTV-CH.8	915-655-7383
Texas	Tyler	KLTV-CH.7	214-592-3873
Texas	Wichita Falls	WFDX-CH.3	817-692-4530
Texas	Lubbock	KCBD-CH.11	806-744-1414
Texas	Harlingen	KGBT-CH.4	512-423-3910
Utah	Salt Lake City	KUED-CH.7	801-581-6336
Utah	Salt Lake City	KTVX-CH.4	801-972-1776
Vermont	Burlington	WCAX-CH.3	802-862-5761
Virginia	Norfolk	WTAR-CH.3	804-446-2600

State	City	Station	Phone Number
Virginia	Fredericksburg	WHFU-CH.69	703-371-9960
Virginia	Lynchburg	WSET-CH.8	804-528-1313
Virginia	Richmond	WXEX-CH.8	804-643-0166
Washington	Yakima	KNDO-CH.23	509-248-2300
Washington	Spokane	KHQ -CH.6	509-448-4666
Washington, C. C.		WQVM-CH.9	202-686-6000
West Virginia	Huntington	WSAZ-CH.3	304-697-4780
West Virginia	Bluefield	WHIS-CH.6	304-327-7114
Wisconsin	Green Bay	WBAY-CH.2	414-432-3331
Wyoming	Riverton	KWRB-CH.10	307-864-2351

APPENDIX B

NEWS DIRECTOR'S SURVEY

Time Begun: _____ Date: _____ Station: _____

Telephone No: _____ City _____ State _____

News Director: _____ (Find out name from receptionist) .

Hello, my name is Mary Blue, I am a Ph.D. candidate at Louisiana State University. As part of my dissertation research I am surveying news directors' opinions concerning what makes a newscaster believable to his or her listeners. I would appreciate your help for a few minutes. This conversation is being recorded for my own convenience and will be used for my dissertation research only.

First, are you responsible for hiring the newscasters at your station? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If No Terminate Interview. If interview is terminated for any other reason at any time explain _____

1. How would you describe a believable newscaster? In other words, what adjectives would you use to describe a person who you would hire as a newscaster on the basis of how easily they would be believed by their audience.

2. Do you think it is possible for a woman to be too physically attractive to be a believable newscaster?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ DK

3. Do you think it is possible for a man to be too physically attractive to be a believable newscaster?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ DK

4. Do you think there are any qualities or aspects of a person's voice which would tend to make him or her believable? If so, what are some of these.

Now I am going to mention some adjectives that have been used to describe newscasters. I would like to know if you think these adjectives describe a believable newscaster. For each issue please tell me if you think it is very important, important, not so important, or not a descriptive adjective which would describe believability.

CROSS OUT RESPONSE

5. Would you say that friendly is an adjective which describes a believable broadcaster? Is it very important, important, not so important, or not descriptive.

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

6. What about intelligence as an adjective?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

7. Sociable?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

8. Poised?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

9. Cheerful?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

10. How would you rate relaxed as a descriptive adjective?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

11. What about good-natured?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

12. Intellectual?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

13. Strident Voice?

VERY IMPT	NOT SO IMPT	NOT DESCRIP	DK
-----------	-------------	-------------	----

14. What about cooperative?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

15. As an adjective describing a believable newscaster, how would you rate responsible?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

16. Virtuous?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

17. Unselfish?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

18. What about calm?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

19. Experienced?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

20. What about verbal?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

21. What about logical?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

22. As an adjective describing believable newscasters, how would you rate confident? Very important, important, not so important, or not descriptive?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

23. What about head-strong?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

24. Trained?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

25. Sympathetic?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

26. What about nice?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
27. Qualified?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
28. Fast speaking?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
29. Extroverted?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
30. What about just?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
31. Pleasant?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
32. Bold?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
33. Loud?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
34. How would you rate energetic as an adjective describing a believable newscaster?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
35. What about good?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
36. Attractive?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
37. Informed?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK
38. Composed?
 VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

39. What about competent?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
40. Kind?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
41. Talkative?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
42. Voice pitch?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
43. As an adjective describing a believable newscaster, how would you rate expertness?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
44. What about active?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
45. Impressive?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
46. Adventurous?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
47. Refined?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
48. Reliable?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
49. Slow-speaking?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
50. Fluent?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
51. What about rational?
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|
| VERY IMPT | NOT SO IMPT | NOT DESCRIP | DK |
|-----------|-------------|-------------|----|

52. Outgoing?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

53. Imaginative?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

54. What about scrupulous?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

55. Consistent?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

56. Original?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

57. Open?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

58. Unbiased?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

59. What about neat?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

60. Interesting?

VERY IMPT NOT SO IMPT NOT DESCRIP DK

These last few questions are for statistical purposes only.

61. How long have you worked as a news director? _____

62. How long have you worked in the broadcast industry?
_____.

63. How old are you? _____

64. What is the highest grade of school you have finished?

65. Respondent's Sex: MALE FEMALE

Time finished: _____

APPENDIX C

INSTRUMENT

EXPERIMENT SIGN-UP FORM

My signature, on this sheet, by which I volunteer to participate in the experiment on The believability of
Television Newscasters
conducted by Mary Blue
indicates that I understand that all subjects in the project are volunteers, that I can withdraw at any time from the experiment, that I have been or will be informed as to the nature of the experiment, that the data I provide will be anonymous and my identity will not be revealed without my permission, and that my performance in this experiment may be used for additional approved projects. Finally, I shall be given an opportunity to ask questions prior to the start of the experiment and after my participation is complete.

Subject's Signature

Date

* To be retained by the investigator

We are asking your voluntary participation in a study about television newscasters. All data received will be treated anonymously and confidentially.

First we would like you to answer the following questions:

1. How old are you? _____
2. Circle your approximate year in school.
 Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior
3. Circle whether you are a male or female.
 Male Female

After you have answered these questions, please do not turn the page.

We will be showing you a videotape of a newscast. After the tape has ended we would like you to make some judgments about this newscaster. The direction toward which you check the scale depends upon which of the two ends of the scale in your judgment seems most characteristic of this newscaster. Here is how to record your judgment.

If you feel that this newscaster is very closely related to one end of the scale as opposed to the other end of the scale, you would place a check mark as shown in

Example #1:

Example #1

Fair ✓ : : : : : : : unfair

or

Fair : : : : : : ✓ unfair

If you feel that this newscaster is quite closely related, but not extremely so, to one end of the scale as opposed to the other end of the scale you would place a check mark as shown in Example #2.

Example #2

strong _____ : ✓ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : weak

or

strong _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : ✓ : _____ : weak

If you feel that this newscaster is only slightly related to one end of the scale as opposed to the other end of the scale you would place a check mark as shown in Example #3.

Example #3

active _____ : _____ : ✓ : _____ : _____ : _____ : passive

or

active _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : ✓ : _____ : passive

If you feel that this newscaster is neutral on the scale then you would make a check mark in the center of the scale as shown in Example #4.

Example #4

safe _____ : _____ : ✓ : _____ : _____ : _____ : dangerous

Please make your judgments on the scales separately and independently. Make your judgments and record them as quickly as possible, don't worry or think about individual scales. It is your first impression, your immediate feeling that we are interested in.

Finally, don't forget to answer the two questions at the end of the questionnaire.

If there are no questions please turn the page and read the following description of this newscaster. We will then show the videotape. After it is completed begin marking your judgments.

HIGH-CREDIBLE NEWSCASTER

This person has been a working journalist for the past ten years. In addition to anchoring the evening newscast, this person is an outstanding writer and reporter. In order to be well-prepared for a job in television news, this person received a masters degree from one of the most prestigious journalism schools in the country. A television news director used these words to describe this newscaster: "very intelligent," "confident," "a responsible journalist," "pleasant," "well-informed," "reliable," "fluent," "has a neat appearance," "consistent," and "unbiased."

MEDIUM-CREDIBLE NEWSCASTER

This person has been a working journalist for the past two years. In addition to anchoring the evening newscast, this person has occasionally worked as a writer and reporter. This person has a bachelors degree in journalism. A television news director used these words to describe this newscaster: "intelligent," "pleasant," "confident," "consistent," and "has a neat appearance."

LOW-CREDIBLE NEWSCASTER

This person has been hired recently as anchor person of the local evening news. This person has never worked as a newscaster before, or as a news writer or reporter. This person attended college and took "a few" journalism courses, but did not graduate. A television news director used these words to describe this newscaster: "seems to be friendly and nice," and "has a neat appearance."

Do you think this newscaster is:

friendly	:	:	:	:	:	:	unfriendly
unintelligent	:	:	:	:	:	:	unintelligent
sociable	:	:	:	:	:	:	retiring
poised	:	:	:	:	:	:	nervous
tense	:	:	:	:	:	:	relaxed
good natured	:	:	:	:	:	:	mean
responsible	:	:	:	:	:	:	irresponsible
experienced	:	:	:	:	:	:	inexperienced
verbal	:	:	:	:	:	:	quiet
calm	:	:	:	:	:	:	anxious
illogical	:	:	:	:	:	:	logical
confident	:	:	:	:	:	:	lacks confidence
untrained	:	:	:	:	:	:	trained
sympathetic	:	:	:	:	:	:	unsympathetic
qualified	:	:	:	:	:	:	unqualified
unjust	:	:	:	:	:	:	just
unpleasant	:	:	:	:	:	:	pleasant

Do you think this Newscaster is:

bold	:	:	:	:	:	:	timid
energetic	:	:	:	:	:	:	tired
attractive	:	:	:	:	:	:	unattractive
uninformed	:	:	:	:	:	:	informed
composed	:	:	:	:	:	:	excitable
incompetent	:	:	:	:	:	:	competent
expert	:	:	:	:	:	:	inexpert
active	:	:	:	:	:	:	passive
unimpressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	impressive
reliable	:	:	:	:	:	:	unreliable
fluent	:	:	:	:	:	:	hesitating
rational	:	:	:	:	:	:	irrational
withdrawn	:	:	:	:	:	:	outgoing
unimaginative	:	:	:	:	:	:	imaginative
scrupulous	:	:	:	:	:	:	unscrupulous
consistent	:	:	:	:	:	:	inconsistent
unoriginal	:	:	:	:	:	:	original

Do you think this newscaster is:

open	:	:	:	:	:	:	secretive
unbiased	:	:	:	:	:	:	biased
neat	:	:	:	:	:	:	careless
interesting	:	:	:	:	:	:	dull
professional	:	:	:	:	:	:	unprofessional
insincere	:	:	:	:	:	:	sincere
authoritative	:	:	:	:	:	:	groundless
communicative	:	:	:	:	:	:	disjointed
unpersonable	:	:	:	:	:	:	personable
authentic	:	:	:	:	:	:	false

Do you think this newscasters's voice is

harsh	:	:	:	:	:	:	smooth
pleasant	:	:	:	:	:	:	unpleasant
high pitched	:	:	:	:	:	:	low pitched
monotonous	:	:	:	:	:	:	varied
genuine	:	:	:	:	:	:	ungenuine
understandable	:	:	:	:	:	:	undiscernable
too fast	:	:	:	:	:	:	too slow
unexpressive	:	:	:	:	:	:	expressive

How often do you watch the local news? _____

Have you ever seen this newscaster? _____

APPENDIX D
NEWS SCRIPT

SLIDE #1

GOOD EVENING ...
I'M _____.
AT THE TOP OF THE
NEWS TONIGHT ...
THE COMMERCE
DEPARTMENT SAYS
ITS INDEX OF
LEADING ECONOMIC
INDICATORS
PLUNGED IN
DECEMBER FOR A
FIVE-MONTH
RECORD DECLINE OF
11-PER-CENT.
THIS FORESHADOWS
MORE LAYOFFS AND
FACTORY CLOSINGS
IN MONTHS
AHEAD.

THE GOVERNMENT
SAYS AMERICAN
BUSINESSES PLAN
TO REDUCE CAPITAL
SPENDING IN 1981.

... AND THAT
WOULD HURT THE
NATION'S ECONOMY.

THE U-S
COMMERCE
SECRETARY'S
OFFICE HAS URGED
PROMPT
CONGRESSIONAL
ACTION TO
INCREASE
INVESTMENT TAX
CREDITS TO
ENCOURAGE MORE
CORPORATE
SPENDING.

CHRYSLER
CORPORATION SAYS
THAT NEXT WEEK'S
CAR OUTPUT WILL
BE ITS BEST
SINCE BEFORE
THANKSGIVING...
AND THAT ALL BUT
ONE OF ITS EIGHT
U-S CAR AND TRUCK
ASSEMBLY PLANTS
WILL BE IN
OPERATION.

HOWEVER ...
AMERICAN MOTORS
ANNOUNCED THAT
60-PER-CENT OF
ITS WORK FORCE
WILL BE OFF THE
JOB NEXT WEEK.

THE HOUSE
EDUCATION AND
LABOR COMMITTEE
HAS APPROVED
EMERGENCY
FUNDING OF
TWO-BILLION-
DOLLARS TO
FINANCE PUBLIC
SERVICE JOBS IN
THE FACE OF
UNEMPLOYMENT.

THE MONEY
PROVIDES FOR
JOBS FOR ONE
YEAR IN WHAT THE
COMMITTEE CALLS
"A STOP-GAP
EMERGENCY" EFFORT
TO OFFSET THE
RECESSION.

SLIDE #2

THE STOCK
MARKET RALLIED
TOWARD THE END
OF THE SESSION
TODAY...TO
FINISH WITH A
SMALL GAIN IN
MODERATE TRADING.

THE NEW YORK
STOCK EXCHANGE
INDEX CLOSED
SHOWING A GAIN
OF 16-CENTS ON
AN AVERAGE SHARE
TRADED. THE
AMERICAN
EXCHANGE GAINED
28-CENTS ON A
SHARE.

VOLUME ON THE
NEW YORK
EXCHANGE TOTALED
16-MILLION-580-
THOUSAND SHARES.

TURN

TURNING TO
OTHER NEWS...A
PRIVATE RESEARCH
GROUP SAYS THE
U-S NUCLEAR
WEAPONS ARSENAL
IS TOO LARGE AND
SHOULD BE
REDUCED.

THE CENTER FOR
DEFENSE INFORMA-
TION SAYS THE
NEARLY
30-THOUSAND
WARHEAD ARSENAL
IS A TARGET TOO
INVITING TO
FOREIGN POWERS...
AND IS
SUSCEPTIBLE TO
PREMATURE
FIRING AND
THEFT BY
TERRORISTS.

A TURKISH
JETLINER CRASHED
INTO THE SEA
TONIGHT...WHEN
THE RUNWAY
LIGHTS AT AN
ISTANBUL AIRPORT
BLACKED OUT.

41-PERSONS
WERE ABOARD THE
PLANE AND THE
NUMBER OF
SURVIVORS IS
NOW KNOWN.

FISHING BOATS
ARE BRINGING IN
PIECES OF THE
PLANE...AND NAVY
VESSELS HAVE
BEEN ALERTED TO
SEARCH FOR
POSSIBLE
SURVIVORS.

AT LEAST
30-PEOPLE WERE
REPORTED KILLED
AND DOZENS MORE
WERE INJURED
DURING FIGHTING
IN LIMA, PERU
TODAY.

A SPOKESMAN
SAYS THE FATALITIES
OCCURED DURING A
20-MINUTE BATTLE
BETWEEN POLICE
AND ANTI-
GOVERNMENT
REBELS.

TURN

IN ENGLAND...

A MIDDLE-AGED MAN
GOT AWAY WITH
69-THOUSAND
DOLLARS FROM A
LONDON BANK TODAY
AFTER PLACING A
BRIEFCASE ON THE
MANAGER'S DESK
SAYING IT WAS A
BOMB.

AS THE MAN
LEFT THE BANK...
MANAGER
ALBERT ENWIRGHT
CALLED THE POLICE
AND EVACUATED HIS
STAFF FROM THE
BUILDING.

WHEN SCOTLAND
YARD EXPERTS
OPENED THE
BRIEFCASE THEY
FOUND NO BOMB...
JUST SEVEN-POUNDS
OF POTATOES.

AND BACK IN
THE UNITED STATES
...INDIANS
THREATEN WAR ON
THE U-S BECAUSE
GOVERNMENT
OFFICIALS CANNOT
MEET A MIDNIGHT
DEADLINE FOR
COMPLYING WITH
TRIBAL DEMANDS.

A SPOKESMAN
FOR THE 67-MEMBER
KOO'TEHNEE TRIBE
IN BONNER'S FERRY
IDAHO SAID THE
WAR WILL BE MORE
SYMBOLIC THAN ACTUAL.
ACTUAL.

THEY ARE
SEEKING A TREATY
AND RESERVATION
IN EXCHANGE FOR
ONE-MILLION-600-
THOUSAND ACRES OF
ANCESTRAL LAND
SEIZED 120-YEARS
AGO.

THE U-S SENATE
HAS PASSED A BILL
TO COMPENSATE THE
VICTIMS OF
VIOLENT CRIME FOR
THEIR PERSONAL
INJURIES AND LOSS
OF EARNINGS. THE
HOUSE JUDICIARY
COMMITTEE HAS
NOT YET ACTED ON
THE MEASURE.

TURN

IN LOCAL NEWS.

...A LEAK IN A
TANK TRUCK
CARRYING
45-THOUSAND
POUNDS OF DEADLY
HYDROGEN CHLORIDE
GAS CAUSED
TONIGHT'S
EVACUATION OF A
10-SQUARE BLOCK
AREA OF MOTELS
AND RESIDENCES IN
BILOXI,
MISSISSIPPI.
OFFICIALS SAY THE
GAS TURNS INTO
HYDROCHLORIC ACID
UPON EXPOSURE TO
WATER. A SUDDEN
SHOCK OR HEAT
COULD CAUSE IT TO
EXPLODE.

A CLEAN-UP IS
GOING ON NEAR
NEW ORLEANS
WHERE MORE THAN
A MILLION GALLONS
OF OIL SPILLED
INTO THE
MISSISSIPPI
RIVER. THE OIL
IS THREATENING A
WATERFOWL REFUGE
AT THE MOUTH OF
THE RIVER.
OFFICIALS PLAN TO
USE OIL-BOOMS TO
PROTECT THE
MARSHES. THE OIL
SPILL OCCURRED
WHEN A NORWEGIAN
TANKER RAN OVER
ITS OWN ANCHOR
CHAIN THIS
WEEKEND...SLICING
A HOLE IN THAT
SHIP.

AND...THE
COAST GUARD NOW
SAYS AN EFFORT
WILL BE MADE
TOMORROW TO FREE
A WORK BOAT FROM
UNDER A TANKER
IN THE
MISSISSIPPI
RIVER. THE
52-FOOT WORK BOAT
AND THE 480-FOOT
TANKER COLLIDED
NEAR THE MOUTH
OF THE RIVER
EARLY YESTERDAY.
ONE MAN WAS
RESCUED FROM THE
SMALL BOAT'S
WRECKAGE. THREE
CREWMEN ARE STILL
MISSING. NO ONE
ON THE TANKER WAS
INJURED.

TURN

SLIDE #3

HELP MAY BE ON
THE WAY FOR
VICTIMS OF THAT
JEFFERSON ISLAND
SALT DOME
COLLAPSE LAST
NOVEMBER.
GOVERNOR DAVE
TREEN SAYS THE
STATE WILL DO WHA
Tsoever IS
PERMITTED UNDER
EXISTING FEDERAL
REGULATIONS TO
AID THOSE PEOPLE
WHO WILL LOSE
THEIR JOBS UNTIL
THEY CAN FIND
OTHER EMPLOYMENT.

AND ...

GOVERNOR TREEN
MET TODAY WITH
TEN OF
LOUISIANA'S
DEMOCRATIC
CONGRESSMEN TO
SMOOTH ANY
FEATHERS RUFFLED
BY EXECUTIVE
ASSISTANT JOHN
CADE.

CADE TOLD
REPORTERS LAST
MONTH THAT
LOUISIANA'S GOP
PLANNED TO 'get'
SEVERAL
DEMOCRATIC
CONGRESSMEN IN
1982. TREEN
SAID CADE'S
COMMENT DID NOT
REFLECT HIS
PERSONAL VIEWS.

SLIDE #4

TWO MEN ARE IN
CUSTODY TONIGHT
AFTER ALLEDGEDLY
FIRING A SHOTGUN
FROM THEIR CAR AT
TWO TRUCKERS WHO
WERE BLOCKING
TRAFFIC ON I-10.
THE TRUCKERS WERE
TRYING TO STOP
THE MEN'S CAR
BECAUSE IT WAS
SWERVING AND RAN
ANOTHER CAR OFF
THE ROAD. STATE
POLICE ARRESTED
THE MEN IN THE
SWERVING CAR AND
CHARGED THEM WITH
FIRING A SHOTGUN
FROM A MOVING
VEHICLE. THE
DRIVER HAS BEEN
CHARGED WITH
DRIVING WHILE
INTOXICATED.

AND...ST. JAMES
PARISH DEPUTIES
HAD TO DEAL WITH
ANOTHER PROBLEM
THIS WEEKEND.
DEPUTIES CAUGHT A
TRUCK DRIVER
DUMPING A LOAD OF
POWERFUL
CHEMICALS INTO A
CANAL IN
GRAMERCY. THE
COMPANY THAT OWNS
THE TRUCK HAS
SINCE DROPPED
CAUSTIC SODA INTO
THE CANAL TO
NEUTRALIZE THE
CHEMICAL.
RESIDENTS IN THE
AREA WERE IN NO
DANGER AND
OFFICIALS SAY IT
IS TOO EARLY TO
TELL IF WILDLIFE
IN THE AREA WILL
BE AFFECTED.

TURN

U-S CUSTOMS
AND COAST GUARD
OFFICIALS ARE
SEARCHING THE
LAKE-CATHERINE
AREA TONIGHT FOR
A LARGE LOBSTER
BOAT WHICH
EVADED NARCOTICS
AUTHORITIES AFTER
UNLOADING FIVE-
TONS OF MARIJUANA
IN EASTERN
NEW ORLEANS.

TEN PEOPLE
WERE ARRESTED...
INCLUDING TWO
CUBANS...AND AN
ESTIMATED
ONE THOUSAND
POUNDS OF
MARIJUANA WERE
CONFISCATED.

FINALLY...

THE AMERICAN
MEDICAL
ASSOCIATION SAYS
MAN'S BEST FRIEND
IS RESPONSIBLE
FOR SOME
ONE-POINT-EIGHT
MILLION DOGBITES
EACH YEAR AND
IS RAPIDLY
BECOMING A
DANGER FACTOR.

OF THOSE
BITTEN EACH YEAR
...600-THOUSAND
SUFFER SERIOUS BITES
BITES. THIS
PROMPTS THE
A-M-A TO SAY THE
FAMILY DOG MAY
BE DANGEROUS TO
YOUR HEALTH.

WE'LL HAVE ALL
THE SPORTS AND
WEATHER WHEN WE
COME BACK...

TAKE TO LS/MUSIC UP

AFTER THIS.

APPENDIX E
NEWS DIRECTORS' SURVEY RESULTS

Adjective	Very* Important	Important	Not Important	Not Descriptive	Don't Know
friendly	32	40	25	3	0
intelligent	68	28	4	0	0
sociable	8	52	20	20	0
poised	64	26	10	0	0
cheerful	12	32	48	8	0
relaxed	27	61	9	3	0
good natured	16	36	46	2	0
intellectual	3	11	62	24	0
strident	0	24	12	44	20
cooperative	12	20	37	31	0
responsible	77	15	0	8	0
virtuous	2	36	42	20	0
unselfish	4	23	38	34	1
calm	20	66	10	4	0
experienced	40	48	12	0	0
verbal	41	31	15	13	0
logical	40	45	13	2	0
confident	69	28	3	0	0
Head-strong	1	2	40	57	0
trained	8	88	4	0	1
sympathetic	2	48	33	17	0
nice	5	40	40	15	0
qualified	64	28	8	0	0
fast-speaking	0	0	48	52	0
extroverted	9	31	43	17	0
just	41	40	15	4	0
pleasant	20	72	8	0	0
bold	0	60	23	17	0
loud	0	0	50	49	1
energetic	11	67	13	9	0
good	2	44	22	32	0
attractive	20	40	25	15	0
informed	74	26	0	0	0
composed	47	43	7	3	0
competent	76	23	1	0	0
kind	1	48	24	27	0
talkative	1	10	60	29	0
expertness	20	64	4	12	0
active	12	40	32	16	0
impressive	8	56	16	20	0
adventurous	0	28	52	20	0
refined	6	26	50	18	0

reliable	56	40	4	0	0
slow-speaking	0	12	56	32	0
fluent	32	60	2	4	0
rational	39	60	0	1	0
outgoing	0	68	28	4	0
imaginative	12	56	28	4	0
scrupulous	20	40	20	20	0
consistent	48	44	8	0	0
original	12	72	28	8	0
open	8	68	12	12	0
unbiased	80	18	2	0	0
neat	24	68	4	4	0
interesting	32	56	12	0	0
responses to open-ended question					
professional	59				
sincere	58				
authoritative	60				
communicative	55				
personable	54				
authentic	52				

*Expressed in percentages. Total number surveyed = 100.

VITA

Mary Irene Blue was born in Council Bluffs, Iowa, on September 27, 1953. She attended public schools in Council Bluffs and was graduated from Thomas Jefferson High School in 1971. She has a Bachelor of Arts degree in Journalism and Mass Communication and Speech - Telecommunicative Arts from Iowa State University and a Master of Arts degree in Communication from the University of Nebraska. She is the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. John E. Blue of Council Bluffs, Iowa.

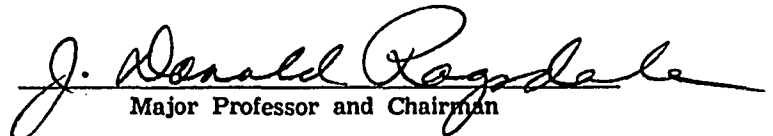
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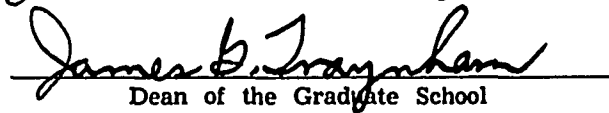
Candidate: Mary I. Blue

Major Field: Speech

Title of Thesis: Factors of Believability of Television Newscasters

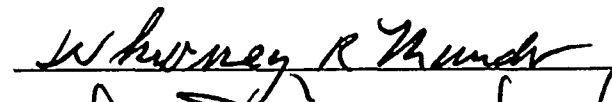
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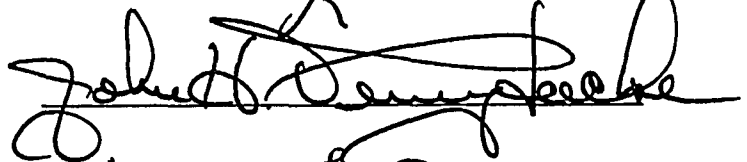

Major Professor and Chairman

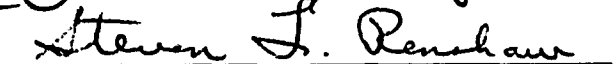

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:









Date of Examination:

May 5, 1981